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Edited by FREDERICK HOWARD WINES

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FRENCH CRIMINAL STATISTICS.

Courts of Assize.

In 1884, the courts of assize in France tried 3,277 cases, 1,629 charges of crime against persons, and 1,649 against property. These cases involved 4,277 persons, of whom 2,427 were accused of crimes against the person, and 1,850 against property.

Nine of them were minors, regarded by French law as having acted "without discernment," who were sent to a house of correction. Of the remainder, 1,195 were acquitted, and 3,073 convicted. The convicted were sentenced as follows :

30 to execution.
123 to life imprisonment at hard labor.
84 to imprisonment at hard labor for 20 years.
392 to imprisonment at hard labor for 8 years and less than 20 years.
302 to imprisonment at hard labor for less than 8 years.
2 to perpetual reclusion.
1 to 20 years of reclusion.
594 to not less than 5 no more than 10 years reclusion.
1,253 to more than 1 year of simple imprisonment.
291 to 1 year or less of simple imprisonment.
1 to a mere fine, for violation of the railroad law.

Of the 30 condemned to death (27 men and 3 women), 7 were executed, and the sentence of the other 23 commuted to imprisonment at hard labor for life.

Correctional Tribunals.

The lower courts passed upon 184,949 cases, of which 163,728 were ordinary misdemeanors, and 21,221 were violations of the laws relating to revenue and to game.

The number of individuals involved was 217,960, namely, 188,667 men and 29,293 women.

The courts found extenuating circumstances in favor of 104,157 of the accused.

Recidivists.

Of the whole number of prisoners tried by the courts of both grades, and found guilty, 89,169 were convicted a second time or oftener. The number who had been sentenced previously to a simple fine was 10,565 ; to imprisonment for one year or less, 60,648 ; to imprisonment for more than one year, 16,112 ; to reclusion, 1,469 ; to hard labor, 375.

The largest portion of recidivists is found among vagrants and beggars.

Of 5,269 prisoners discharged in 1882, after a term of not less than one year and one day's imprisonment, 948 were reconvicted within the year, 780 in 1883, and 281 in 1884. Of 901 female prisoners discharged in 1882, 83 were reconvicted within the year, 89 in 1883, and 39 in 1884.

The 1,999 recidivists of 1882, had 4,391 sentences passed upon them ; and the 211 women, 394.

The ratio of juvenile recidivists is very slight. It is 13 per cent. for boys, and 5 per cent. for girls.

Correspondents of the RECORD will please take notice that it is the rule of this paper to publish no anonymous communications. Every article contributed must be signed by the name of the writer, and will be printed over his signature.

CRIME AND INSANITY.

We had the pleasure, not long since, of addressing the young men in the Elmira Reformatory, when we spoke of the analogies which exist between the insane and the criminal character, making these points :

1. The basis of insanity is physical, its manifestations mental and moral. The same is true in large measure of criminal propensities.

2. Insanity is probably for the most part hereditary, and the so-called "causes" of insanity recorded in statistical tables are often nothing more than the occasions of the outbreak of a disease to which the victim was predisposed from birth.

3. The approach both of insanity and of criminal character is gradual, and commonly unsuspected by him who is overtaken by either.

4. The change from innocence to depravity corresponds with the alteration in personal character observable in the insane.

5. The lunatic and the criminal both form theories to account for the perversion of which they are conscious, which are very far removed from the truth.

6. The manifestations of insanity take the form of undue exaltation or depression, and, in either event, of a pronounced egotism, often accompanied by hallucinations or delusions. In this particular the resemblances between insanity and crime are most striking.

7. As insanity tends to make progress and to end in dementia, so does the habitual criminal sink into moral imbecility.

8. Insanity and crime are both the occasion of intense pain.

9. Both incapacitate their subjects for normal social life, and both are treated by incarceration, if of a dangerous or troublesome type.

10. The cure of either is difficult ; much depends upon beginning in time ; and for success in the effort to restore the power of self-restaint and self-direction, the co-operation of the patient is essential.

The force of these analogies is heightened by the existence of a certain connection between crime and insanity, shown in the commission of criminal actions under the influence of an insane impulse, and the frequent occurrence of both crime and insanity in a particular family.

Nevertheless, these two are not to be confounded with each other, nor the distinction between them lost sight of. A degree of moral responsibility attaches to criminal acts, which might have been avoided by the exercise of the power of the will, which cannot be charged against a lunatic. But all crime is folly, and the man who commits it deserves to be characterized as a fool.

The *London Lancet* recommends a book entitled "Hospital Sisters and their Duties," by Eva C. E. Luckes, Matron to the London Hospital, published by J. & A. Churchill.

No wonder the secret of our emotions escapes the unsympathizing observer, who might as well put on his spectacles to discern odors.—GEORGE ELIOT.

Virtues paraded hide vices ; like those strong odors used to conceal bad smells.—ANON.

THE LABOR QUESTION.

Lujo Brentano: La Question Ouvrière: Traduit de l'Allemand, par Léon Caubert. Paris, Librairie des Bibliophiles, Rue Saint-Honoré, 338, MDCCCLXXXV.—Pp. 324.

We have read this book with satisfaction and profit. It is a chapter written by Brentano for the "Manual of Political Economy" of G. Schoenburg, and translated by Caubert, at the suggestion of the eminent political economist, Léon Say. The key-note is struck in the opening sentence: "As in private life we are obliged daily to sacrifice interest to duty, so in political economy the material interests of social existence must be subordinated to the end sought in the progress of mankind." That end is defined to be "the highest possible development of the faculties of each individual member of the race and his equitable share in the benefits of civilization." It can only be gained by a due regard for the respective rights of property and labor.

To comprehend the labor question, a knowledge of history is indispensable. The author distinguishes four epochs in the growth of the industrial system of modern times: the first, prior to organization of the guilds of the middle ages; then the guilds; followed by the efforts of governments to regulate the organization of labor; and this in turn by the era of industrial freedom.

Before the growth of the guilds, labor was individual and unorganized; little capital was usually requisite for the prosecution of strictly local industries, which were pursued by residents of the locality. There was, therefore, practically no restriction upon labor. The only grades of workmen known at that time were apprentices and master-mechanics. An intermediate rank, however, may be traced from about the middle of the fourteenth century, known as companions. At first, a companion was simply an unfledged master-workman, undistinguishable, in a social sense, from his superior. The working class, as such, had no existence, except where manufacturing was prosecuted upon a large scale, as in the cloth-works of Flanders and Brabant. But when particular trades began to organize themselves into guilds, and industrial pursuits received an impulse in consequence of such organization, wealth began to accumulate. With the increase of capital belonging to the guild, the importance of the master was augmented. Naturally, a distinct class grew up, which sought to dominate over the organization, to reap the pecuniary and other advantages resulting from the labor of all, and to perpetuate its own power as a caste. The inevitable result was, that the companions also organized themselves into corporations: not, at first, distinct from the guild, but with a view of discharging certain portions of the functions of the guild, particularly that of mutual succor in case of sickness and death. In the course of time, however, the position of companion, inasmuch as it tended more and more to become a fixed condition of subjection to the master, without hope of rising to the dignity of master, became insupportable; and a complete separation took place. With this separation between employers and employed, the labor question was born. A struggle ensued between the two orders, accompanied by strikes. By the middle of the sixteenth century, the necessity of legislative interference was pressing, in order to relieve industry as a whole from the restrictions upon its free development and growth resulting from the selfishness of employers, who would not allow the number of workmen to keep pace with the demands of the community, nor suffer new industries to be organized. The law undertook to regulate the relations of employers and employed, to fix the price of wages, the hours of labor, the duration of apprenticeship, the number of apprentices, and to define the rights and obligations of apprentices, companions, and masters. Up to this time, the relief of distress among workmen had been the affair of the guild; now it became, for the first time, the affair of the state, and the foundations were laid for our modern poor-laws. The guilds were taxed, in order to provide a fund for the succor of able-bodied workmen deprived of work and unrelieved by the guilds themselves. Legislation, however, proved so unsuccessful in practice, as a remedy for existing evils, that the eighteenth century has been characterized as "the century of industrial insurrection." The entire fabric of remedial industrial legislation received its death-blow on the night of the 4th of August, 1789, when, in France, liberty and equality were proclaimed. Prussia, under the influence of the theories of Adam Smith, in its edict of November 2, 1810, was the first to proclaim industrial freedom, and was followed by England in 1814. The new doctrine of the nineteenth century is that labor is a commodity, to be bought and sold in open market, under the general law of contract, free from interference on the part of the state: the freedom and independence of the workingman have become the legal basis of the conditions of industry.

From this rapid survey of the labor movement during four centuries, it is evident that the labor question may be stated in the following terms: How is the workingman to secure for himself the highest possible individual development, and his fair share in the benefits of the civilization which he has aided to inaugurate?

The right of the workman to sell his labor in open market does not suffice to insure to him and his family an adequate subsistence. Labor is, it is true, a commodity, in the sense that it may be bought and sold; but since a man's labor cannot be separated from his person and his life, it is not to be classed with other commodities. He who offers it for sale has a right to certain guaranties from the purchaser, who becomes of necessity lord of the laborer's life, the guardian of his health, and of his intellectual and moral faculties, as well as of his social security and comfort. For the protection of labor, organization or legislation—one or the other—is an indispensable condition. Abandoned to his unassisted endeavors, and deprived of organization, the laborer is at the mercy of his employer. Two factors govern the price of labor—the death-rate and the birth-rate; for price is regulated by the law of supply and demand. A glut of labor in the market means a reduction in the price of wages, which means suffering and death. The only available remedy is to limit the number of births; but those who refuse to marry are unable to accomplish this, because the ordinary man, seeing in marriage an available means of increasing the income of the family, tends to it naturally. The only resource of the unemployed is crime or a resort to the benefits of the poor-laws. The power of the employer over the employed is manifest in four respects: (1) He can reduce the laborer to a condition of virtual slavery, by a system of credits, through the agency of advances for labor not yet rendered; or by payment in kind, instead of in money, or, which is the same thing, by compelling the laborer to buy of him, or of parties designated by him; or by requiring him to live in houses owned by the employer, thus compelling him to pay him rent, with the liability at any moment to be turned out of house and home. (2) He fixes the place of labor and its duration. (3) He chooses his companions in labor for him. (4) He exerts a certain influence over his private life and the exercise of his political and religious duties. Add to all this, that the workingman who depends upon his daily labor for his daily bread, the moment that sickness or accident overtakes him, or when he becomes old and infirm, has no pecuniary resource; and the measure of his dependence and misery is complete. He does not even know how he is to be buried. Under any plan of life or accident insurance, he can never be sure that he will be able to keep up his premiums. The gap between employer and employed continually widens. Under our new system, he is free, but what has he gained by his freedom? He is more completely subject to his employer than at any previous epoch in the history of the world. True, he may accumulate money by the exercise of rigid economy, and become in turn a capitalist, if he

has exceptional ability or good fortune. But the mass of working-men have no such reasonable expectation. The invention of labor-saving machinery has changed the conditions of life. By making it possible to employ women and children in productive industries, the number of laborers has been augmented to such a degree, that there are men who depend upon the labor of their wives and children for sustenance. In the contracts formed between labor and capital, capital has every advantage. At every industrial crisis, tens of thousands of men find themselves without the means of subsistence ; they become vagrants and tramps ; their wives and daughters swell the ranks of prostitution ; their families are broken up. Pauperism increases. Apprenticeship is a thing of the past. We quote the words of the author :

> Thus the legislation which proclaimed to the working classes liberty and equality, which recognized their right to a larger share in the benefits of civilization, and which pretended to aid in the fuller development of their personality, has led to results directly opposite to those which it foreshadowed. The deprivation of young children of an education, because employed in factories, the destruction of family life due to the employment of women away from home, the social separation of the working-classes, these have annihilated morality among laboring men. And, too, the agglomeration of labor in industrial centres, under the domination of their employers, has given birth to a new order of ideas among them. In the bosom of society two races have been generated, of which one rules and the other is ruled, one is cultivated and the other ignorant ; the one which rules fears the one which is ruled and the one which is ruled hates the one which rules it ; their interests and opinions are so far apart, that they do not understand each other, though they speak a common language.

A dark picture ; somewhat exaggerated, we think ; but truer of Germany, perhaps, than of our own country, where land is abundant, crops plentiful, and education free. But it is not always sufficiently considered, that the population of the United States is made up in great part of immigrants and their children, who have fled hither to escape the conditions described by Brentano, and that their views on the labor question are imported opinions, which nevertheless tend to spread, as we approach nearer to the state of organized competition which prevailes elsewhere. We must, if we would meet wisely the perplexing questions of the distant future, study carefully the experience of older nations.

Four different schools of thought have arisen, under the pressure of this controversy between labor and capital.

(1) The first is the Manchester school, which holds that the fullest possible development of individual faculties is secured by free competition in labor and equality before the law ; that associations of workingmen for their protection are vicious in principle and practice ; that the difficulties of their position are not the result of the encroachments of capital, but of the want of sufficient capital to admit of the payment of high wages ; and that the remedy is to be found in the accumulation of more capital. All interference with the natural operation of the laws of trade, in the form of legislative protection, even of women and children, is injurious to the growth of capital, and therefore to the interests of labor itself. There is in reality no such thing as a labor question.

(2) The reactionary party, on the contrary, sees in the unrestricted liberty of the laboring class the original source of the present difficulties. This school is divided into two sections, of which one would re-establish the guilds ; the other favors the creation of industrial potentates, with power to prescribe conditions to labor, and to enforce them. It is a disbeliever in equality before the law, and would make capital supreme. In its own words, its ideal is to introduce into the industrial system the same relation between employers and employed which existed, under the feudal system, between serfs and their masters. Like the Manchester school, both of these groups of reactionaries are intensely anti-democratic.

(3) The third party includes all the varieties of socialists. It would abolish private right in property, real or personal ; ownership should be vested in the community ; production should be regulated by the State ; labor should be in association ; and the profits of labor should be equitably divided between the producers. In Germany, two orders of socialists are clearly distinguishable—the partisans of democratic socialism and of socialism under a monarchical form of government. The first wing is the party of the Chartists in England, of Louis Blanc in France, of Ferdinand La Salle in Germany. After the death of La Salle in 1864, Schweitzer was elected president of the alliance, but being imbued with the national principles of his predecessor, he was in time displaced by Liebknecht, a disciple of Marx, who was hostile to the Prussian government. From the date of the Congress of Gotha, in 1875, the government declared itself in opposition to the social democrats ; and the attempt upon the life of the emperor in June, 1878, was the occasion of a law for the suppression of their unions. The monarchical socialists, on the other hand, aim at an alliance between the throne and the fourth estate. This was the conception of the first Napoleon. Immediately upon his downfall appeared the first publications of Saint-Simon, who implored kings to use their powers for the elevation of the poor. Disraeli gives expression to the same thought in some of his romances. But Napoleon III. was the first to adopt it as a programme. At the same time, a party sprang up in Germany, which sought to impose upon royalty the task of gaining a victory for the ideas of Rodbertus, the founder of the German socialistic theory, sustained by Rudolph Meyer and Todt. The Staatssocialist, founded by Todt, undertook to show how all the Prussian state might be converted into a socialistic kingdom.

(4) The fourth school is that named by the author the "liberal socialists" (which we must regard as an unfortunate title—why not call it the party of fairness and of common sense ?) which agrees with the Manchester school in thinking that there can be no progress where labor is not free, and where there is not equality before the law ; but holds, nevertheless, that positive measures are essential, in order to conserve this liberty and equality. Labor must have, for its protection, either legislation or the right to protect itself by association.

After an exhaustive discussion of the political and social tendencies of these schools, respectively, Brentano pronounces himself an adherent of the latter, because the maintenance of individual rights in property and the right of inheritance is a necessary condition of progress ; and because the formation of a sufficient and independent revenue and the education, intellectual and moral, of the laboring class, are necessary, in order to enable its members to share in the blessings of civilization.

The latter half of the book is taken up with the analysis of the measures requisite to secure these results. We are compelled to omit his argument, and to content ourselves with a brief statement of his conclusions.

The advantages of cöoperation, though it offers certain advantages, are more theoretical than practical. The difficulties inhering in this system are such, that it has never succeeded on a grand scale ; and these difficulties are not to be overcome by subsidies from the public treasury or pecuniary aid from benevolent individuals.

The same is true of profit-sharing.

Trades-unions are the surest and most legitimate means of self-protection of the laboring class, and they should be encouraged, rather than forbidden. The benefits which result from them are many and great.

Combinations on the part of employers are also legitimate, and in a sense necessary, to enable these to resist improper demands on the part of labor organizations.

In the struggles which take place between capital and labor, over questions which arise out of their mutual relations, and which must be settled, the employed have a right to strike, and the employers have an equal right to meet a strike by a lock-out.

In the end, these difficulties are most easily and satisfactorily adjusted by means of arbitration.

It is not, however, desirable that arbitration should be compulsory, or that the state should take the initiative in bringing it about. All that is necessary is that the state should give to the decisions of boards of arbitration legal validity.

In general the function of the state is not to substitute its own action for that of either the employers or employed ; it must not interfere with the liberty of contract ; its sole duty is to defend the liberty of contract, by protecting the weaker party against the encroachments of the stronger. The more spontaneous the adjustment of difficulties, the better for all parties ; and it is not for the workman's good that he should be deprived of the educational value of the experience gained in settling his own affairs.

The state may, however, and should defend the person and life of the laborer. It should see that in selling his labor he does not sell himself. It should not permit him to be oppressed by the greed, the ignorance, or the indifference of his employer.

The truck system of payments, and truck stores owned by the employer, should be prohibited by law.

The hours of labor should be regulated by law.

The law should regulate the age at which children may be employed, and the conditions of employment of women.

All necessary safeguards and sanitary precautions designed to preserve the laborer's health and existence should be enforced by the government, which is impossible without a sufficient corps of inspectors armed with all necessary powers.

A system of insurance of some sort against want, in consequence of disability or lack of employment, is indispensable to the well-being of the working-man. It should not be compulsory, but it should be organized and its efficiency assured by proper legislation. Without it public relief will become a necessity, and the honest laborer will be pauperized.

The author approves of coöperative stores, and of building associations. He is of the opinion that laws regulating the building of domiciles for working-men are desirable.

We have given a very brief and incomplete outline of the train of thought pursued in this very readable book. We should suppose that a good translation made directly from the German would be a profitable venture at this precise moment for some enterprising American publisher to undertake.

OUR ENGLISH LETTER.

THE ENGLISH PRACTICE WITH PAUPERS OR RESIDENT POOR.

By the law of England every destitute person has a right to claim the necessaries of life. The whole of England and Wales is divided into about 600 union districts, each with a population of from 7,000 to 100,000, or in some London unions of above 200,000.

Each union is governed by a committee of inhabitants elected by the ratepayers. These are called the guardians. The funds are provided by a rate (or tax) imposed on the land or houses within the union, generally averaging 2*s.* in the £, or a tenth of the clear value ; but I have known it—in one case above fifty years ago—require 18*s.* in the £, or nine tenths of the annual value.

Each union has what we call a workhouse, where any destitute person or pauper may claim to be received and lodged and well fed ; but he must work if able, and be under strict discipline.

If the pauper is a stranger he is examined, and if found to belong to some other union he is removed thither when fit to travel ; but if he has been resident in the union for one year he cannot be removed unless he consents.

He may leave the workhouse whenever he pleases.

The house is called a workhouse, but, practically, few except the old or infirm or the sick ever come into it, as those who are willing to work generally find employment, and the idle dislike the confinement, the regularity, and the discipline.

Besides those maintained in the workhouse, the committee of guardians give considerable allowances to the poor at their own homes. This "out-door relief" of paupers, as it is called, is very liable to abuse, and to lead the poor to hope for relief from the rates rather than trust to their own energy and care. In a prudently managed union the out-door and in-door relief are about equal, but in many the out-door costs five times as much as the in-door relief.

The union in which a man has *last* resided for three years, or—if he has not resided anywhere for so long—the place of his birth, is the settlement bound to support him.

VAGRANTS OR TRAVELLING POOR.

Attached to each workhouse is a building called a *vagrant ward* where destitute travellers may obtain a night's lodging, and a pound of bread, and some gruel, doing some hours' work the next morning before they proceed. These destitute travellers, living legally on the public at *workhouses* are called *vagrants*. Other poor persons travel on foot, sleeping at *common lodgings*, paying their cost—some with their lawfully earned money, some by begging. These are properly termed tramps, but the terms are often indiscriminately used, and the two classes often confounded.

The number of *vagrants* sleeping in workhouses varies greatly in different years. A rough census is taken by the Poor-Law Board of the number in the casual (or vagrant) wards on each 1st of January and 1st of July, and the mean of these numbers is assumed to be the average of each night of the year. In 1875 the mean in England and Wales was 2,718 ; in 1880, 6,828 ; in 1883, 3,923 ; in 1884, 4,499.

A similar census of *tramps* was also taken by our Home Office every year up to 1868, and the vagrants were included with them, making up in that year the alarming total of 36,179 ; and as some erroneous impressions were at that time very common, viz., that vagrants and tramps (classed together) were *mostly* criminals, and were *all* living at the expense of the ratepayers, the number created a panic. When it was explained that of the 36,000 only about 6,000 were living on the rates, and that very few of those convicted of theft were either vagrants or tramps, the panic ceased, and the Home Office gave up the census of tramps ; but the Poor-Law Board continued that of the vagrants. My friend, Admiral Christian, however—our chief constable—has carried it on in this county, and I enclose two of his returns with some curious results.

About this time an experiment was commenced in this county, which eventually failed, but which points out the lines on which I think an end may be eventually put to careless habitual wandering.

In those days—1878—and nearly to the present time, it was the universal opinion that the *habitual* vagrant had a rooted aversion to steady labor, though they all professed to be travelling in search of work. A few among the number were no doubt honestly so travelling ; but we had no means of distinguishing the honest workman from the idle. It was therefore proposed that any one applying to a vagrant ward without a ticket should be received, lodged, and fed, and on the next morning should be required to do a task of work, and should then receive a way ticket, giving his name and description, and stating whence he came and whither he was going. If he then walked to another workhouse ten miles nearer to his destination, he showed his ticket, which was signed again, and he proceeded next morning without a task, and if he then walked twenty miles, he might thus continue till his destination was reached. If he was weak, lame, or the like, he was allowed shorter distances, but he must either travel fairly or work.

This afforded no ground of complaining to the public that he was ill used ; it excited no pity, and gave him no right to beg.

This system had extended through two or three counties; but the Poor-Law Board in 1871 issued a general order that *all* vagrants throughout England should be required to do a certain specified task of work; and this put an end to the experiment for the time.

In 1882, however, another increase of vagrancy, consequent on decrease of trade, again aroused public attention to the subject. Two experiments were now tried. A way ticket was given to each vagrant, stating his name, description, and destination, and if he showed this in the middle of the day at a police-office, half a day's journey on the route, he received half a pound of bread.

At the same time a letter (273) was sent to each of the clergy and nonconformist ministers, asking them to explain to their congregations that all men honestly travelling were sufficiently provided with food, and had no excuse for begging. This was tried in many counties with good effect.

The second was, that an act was passed giving power to the Guardians of each union to detain each vagrant for two nights, doing a full day's work in the intervening day. It was fully expected that this would put an end to vagrancy altogether. In some parts of England this power has been fully enforced; in others not at all; and it appears doubtful whether vagrancy is much affected by it. The number throughout England, indeed, decreased considerably in 1883, when the act came into force; but it appeared to decrease as much in those districts where it was not carried out as in those where it was most strictly observed.

The vagrants as a class appear to have changed their feelings. They are not now generally the idle, careless beings that they were twenty years ago. They no longer object to the labor, and are in no degree deterred by it; and as trade unhappily is getting worse, and it is more difficult to obtain employment, the number of vagrants is again increasing.

If it should rise to a degree in which our public should be inclined not only to become angry and alarmed, but to seriously care to put a stop to it, I believe it might be done with little expense or trouble.

Hitherto we have been able to do little to cope with the evil. We have known nothing of the individuals except what they chose to tell us. We have only seen them for one night, and could make no impression on them. In order to deal effectually with any class of men, the first requisite is to obtain a knowledge of the individuals and their antecedents. It is at the same time necessary, in this case at least, that we should give them no claim on the public for pity or assistance.

With these views an act might be passed, that any vagrant coming to a workhouse shall be received and required to give an account of his life for the last three months, and to say where he has last worked steadily for any time, and in what union he has gained a settlement. The police should then write to the police of such places to verify the truth of the statements.

If he had been lately in employ he would then receive a ticket stating these facts, and allowing him to seek for work for—say, a month (or three months), but at the end of that time he must return as a pauper to his own union. If he had found no work in the last month (or three months), he must return thither at once by his way ticket.

If this were carried out at once all over England and Wales, every vagrant would have received a ticket, and after this any one found without proof of his antecedents would be required to give an account of himself, and be detained till he did so, and till his account was tested; and if he refused, or gave a false account, he should be imprisoned for a month and then given a way ticket to the union to which he belonged. Yet none could say that he was starving or ill treated, because if he only went to the nearest workhouse he would be fed and lodged, and only detained while his case was being examined.

I do not, of course, pretend to give exact details of a measure, but I believe that on some such lines as these a tolerable knowledge of the habits of each individual might be obtained; and where this exists, evil habits may easily be prevented, provided at the same time the public are persuaded that no hardship is inflicted which excites their compassion and induces them to give well-intentioned but mistaken relief.

T. B. Ll. Baker.

Hardwicke Court, Gloucester, June 4th.

OUR EXCHANGES.

The American *Annals of the Deaf and Dumb* for July contains articles on Expedients for Teaching Language; Voice, Alphabetics, and Language; Teaching without Text-Books; Loyalty to the Chief; In Memoriam of R. H. Kinney, Thomas Brown, and J. A. Ayres; The Causes of Deafness; School Items; and Miscellaneous.

The May number of the *Bulletin de la Société des Prisons* gives unusual prominence to American topics. Besides printing in full the article of Mr. Vaux, written for the International Prison Congress, it contains an article on the Elmira Reformatory, one on the prisons of Delaware, and one on Mrs. Sarah Smith, the lamented head of the Indiana Reformatory for Women and Girls. It gives us satisfaction to know that in this day of telegraphs and steam printing-presses the attention of the whole world is concentrated on whatever in any nation is worthy of special praise or blame; and we trust that our prisons will feel the influence of foreign criticism, which we shall do all in our power to promote rather than to hinder. The other articles are: "Trial by Jury in Spain," by M. Silvela; "The Penitentiary System," by Dr. Merry-Delabost; "Aid to Discharged Prisoners and the Work of Preventive Institutions," by C. de Corny. Doña Concepcion Arenal, of Spain, pays her regards to M. Ferri, whose views on "Crime and Remorse" do not find in her a believer. Italian prisoners may love the prison; Spanish prisoners do not. But if this is so, she does not know how to account for the larger number of escapes and of suicides in the prisons of Italy. Neither does she comprehend why in Italy petty offenders should be more ready to confess guilt than are criminals of a higher grade, while in Spain murderers confess their crime more readily than do thieves. The denial of guilt is not, in her opinion, a proof of the absence of moral sensibility, any more than avowal is proof of penitence. Satisfaction at obtaining a light sentence does not prove the absence of remorse. The insensibility to the sufferings of the person wronged is evidence of impenitence, but not of complete lack of moral consciousness. She agrees with M. Ferri that remorse is rare among prisoners, but is it not unusual in the case of all of who perpetrate a wrong, outside of prisons as well as inside of them? Comparatively few of those who injure others find their way into prison. Not to speak of oppression in all its forms, the value of property stolen or misappropriated by convicts bears a small proportion to that of all which is stolen or misappropriated by functionaries, employés, contractors, servants, speculators, and others. The thief who picks a pocket does not deserve such punishment as should be meted out to the official or contractor who starves a prisoner, an inmate of a charitable institution or a soldier, for his own enrichment. How much of the money stolen by those not in prison is ever restored to its rightful owner? The absence of remorse which M. Ferri has remarked in the convicts of Pesaro and Castelfranco may be equally observed in all who do wrong, whether they are prisoners, ministers of state, bankers, chancellors, judges, doctors, lawyers, priests, soldiers, kings, emperors, wardens, or contractors. The prisoner is not a monster. Comparative psychology should not, therefore, confine its attention to him, but should study with impartial care the convicted and the unconvicted criminal.

NATIONAL PRISON CHAPLAINS' ASSOCIATION.

The first annual meeting of chaplains of prisons in the United States convened at the Meridian Street Methodist Episcopal Church, in Indianapolis, at 2:30 P.M., June 15, 1886, and was called to order by the Rev. G. H. Hickox, of Jackson, Michigan.

Devotional exercises were conducted by the Rev. J. E. Gilbert, pastor of the Meridian Street Church.

The Rev. L. F. Cain, of Jeffersonville, Indiana, made a brief address of welcome, to which the Chair responded in a few appropriate words.

The secretary of the Association, Rev. J. J. Walter, of Joliet, Illinois, read a great many letters from prison chaplains, expressing approval of the organization. Among the letters read was one from the Rev. Frederick H. Wines, secretary of the Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities for the State of Illinois, which was so highly appreciated, that the Association, by a unanimous vote, requested its publication in the INTERNATIONAL RECORD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION. This letter evinced deep thought and great research in the line of a chaplain's duties, and made a lasting impression upon all present.

The Rev. H. H. Kavanaugh, of Frankfort, Kentucky, addressed the Association, on The Importance of the Sunday-School, as an Agency in the Moral and Reformatory Work of our State Prisons.

The secretary presented a summary of Prison Chaplains' Work. His report showed the following facts : Of the 47 prisons to which inquiries were sent, only 27 have a chaplain ; 17 have Sunday-schools ; 13 have prayer-meetings ; 10 keep a record of Sunday-school and prayer-meeting work ; 8 report evening schools ; 29 report preaching on the Sabbath, either by a chaplain or by transient clergymen. The majority of our prison Sunday-schools are taught by citizens, but in several instances by both citizens and convicts ; as a rule, but little importance is attached to the benefit derived from convict teachers. Many prisons lack the necessary facilities for Sunday-schools and prayer-meetings, having no chapel or other suitable room.

The next topic was a discussion of the question : What can be done by society and by the State for discharged convicts ? It was opened by Mr. Michael Dunn, of Chicago, superintendent of the Chicago Home of Industry, under the management of the Prisoners' Aid Society of Illinois. This discussion elicited much interest and a desire, on the part of every chaplain present, to have such an institution, outside of the prison, through which to work for the complete reformation of the criminal classes. The opinion was unanimously entertained, that by some such method all excuse for further criminal conduct would be taken from every ex-convict.

Previous to adjournment, a committee on constitution was appointed, consisting of Messrs. Cain of Indiana and Walter of Illinois, to report at the next session.

The Association then adjourned, to meet at 8:30, A.M., June 16th.

The Association met according to adjournment. Devotional exercises were conducted by the Rev. G. H. Hickox, who read a portion of Scripture, and the Rev. P. W. Howe, of Lincoln, Nebraska, who led in prayer.

The committee on constitution presented a report, which was accepted, and the constitution adopted *seriatim*.

The secretary read letters from the governor of Iowa and the chaplain of the Iowa State Prison at Fort Madison.

A discussion followed, on the question : What shall be the attitude of the National Prison Chaplains' Association to the National Prison Association ? It ended in the adoption of the following resolution :

Whereas, The members of this Association have been requested to define our attitude toward the National Prison Association, therefore

Resolved, That we look with favor upon the National Prison Association, and that we will cordially co-operate with said organization in whatever shall be for the reformation and salvation of our criminal classes.

The following resolutions were also adopted :

Resolved, That we heartily approve of the publication of the INTERNATIONAL RECORD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, edited by the Rev. Frederick Howard Wines, of Springfield, Illinois, and that we consider it worthy of a wide circulation and support.

Resolved, That we thank Mr. Wines for offering us space in the columns of his paper for a report of our proceedings.

At this point in the meeting, two more chaplains were introduced to the Association, namely : Rev. J. H. Carroll, D.D., of Stillwater, Minnesota, and Rev. J. J. Faude, of Michigan City, Indiana. Dr. Carroll spoke at length regarding the work in his new field of labor, and expressed his gratitude at having a warden of the prison and governor of the State, who were in hearty sympathy with his work and that of this Association.

The committee on place of next meeting reported. After some discussion by Messrs. Howe of Nebraska and Cain of Indiana, Nashville, Tennessee, was chosen. Invitations from several States had been received, but Nashville was selected, because of its central location and because of the pressing invitation given by Dr. Elliott, of the Nashville University.

The Association, having invited the Rev. Sam Jones, who was engaged in evangelistic work in Indianapolis to deliver an address before it, and the time for his address having arrived, adjourned to meet at 2:30, P.M.

The afternoon session was opened with prayer by President Hickox. After singing several hymns, Mrs. Noe, of the Indiana Female Reformatory, gave an account of the methods and workings of that institution.

A discussion followed, on the question : What can we do, to promote prison discipline ? It was participated in by Chaplains Hickox, Walter, Kavanaugh, Carroll, and Howe.

The president made an address on The Practical Results of the Prayer-Meeting in Prisons.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year :

President : G. H. Hickox.

Secretary and Treasurer : J. J. Walter.

Executive Committee : H. H. Kavanaugh, L. F. Cain, and J. J. Walter.

The executive committee was ordered to prepare the programme of the next meeting.

The following resolution was unanimously adopted :

Resolved, That the thanks of this Association be and are hereby extended to the Rev. J. E. Gilbert, pastor, and to the trustees of the Meridian Street Methodist Episcopal Church, for the use of the church during our meetings.

The Association then adjourned, to re-assemble at Nashville, Wednesday, April 29, 1887.

J. J. WALTER, *Secretary*.

Joliet, Illinois, June 25th.

MR. WINES' LETTER.

To the Rev. J. J. WALTER, Sec'y Prison Chaplains' Association.

MY DEAR SIR :—Your letter inviting me to attend the meeting of the Chaplains' Association in Indianapolis came during my absence from home. I have not replied to it before, because I have not wished to say No, and have not seen my way to say Yes. It is now clear that my other duties will not allow of my being present with you, but I wish to express to you my earnest sympathy with the ends sought by you.

There is, to my mind, no nobler work in which any man can engage, than that of ministering to souls in prison—imprisoned, alas, in a double sense. Of all the forms of the Christian ministry, it seems to me to approach most nearly to the spirit of the commission given to the church by its Lord, and of his own example.

It is an obscure work, and its importance is not appreciated as it should be. It is a difficult work, much more difficult than that of a missionary to lands in which the sound of the gospel has not been heard. It is a work which demands great consecration and piety, untiring patience, faith in God and in man, sympathy, tact, and a knowledge of human nature beyond what most men possess.

The discouragements encountered in its prosecution arise not merely from the absence of original moral perception in criminals, their unfortunate early associations and training, the confirmed habits into which they have fallen, their emotional and intellectual volatility, their disposition to deceive, their distrust of professions of moral principle, their self-satisfaction, and the induration of their consciences by long indulgence in sin, but also from the peculiar delicacy of the relations which a prison

chaplain sustains to the prison authorities and to the State government, which necessitates constant care lest he should compromise himself by some error of judgment, and so impair his usefulness as a clergyman. He is, so to speak, between two fires. Often, I fear, chaplains do not receive that cordial support in the discharge of their peculiar duties, which is essential to their highest usefulness to souls. But I believe that the exercise of common sense, prudence, and Christian humility, will obviate the difficulty to which I allude ; and that men of real devotion and discretion will, as a rule, have no reason to complain of want of sympathy from prison wardens.

There are men who have earned recognition from the world, on account of their self-denying labors as prison chaplains. Such names as those of the Rev. John Clay of Preston Gaol, the Rev. Mr. Field of Reading Gaol, and the Rev. Joseph Kingsmill of Pentonville Prison, in England, adorn and illuminate the pages of history. These men, and others like them, have rendered inestimable service to the cause of an enlightened prison discipline, at the same time that their efforts on behalf of the spiritual regeneration of the most hardened men have been crowned with eminent success.

The reformation of convicts is not so hopeless as some would have us believe. More fruit would be visible, of this sort, if more effort were put forth to secure it. You know, perhaps better than any one, how far the conception of a prison as merely a place of detention, or what is worse, as a great manufacturing establishment, conducted for pecuniary profit, hinders the achievement of its ulterior purpose ; and how great injury results to prison discipline in the higher sense, from the intimate connection which subsists between prisons and practical politics.

I may add that too much reliance is placed, in my judgment, on the reformatory influence of labor and of secular instruction ; and that the great truth is often overlooked, that for permanent influence upon the moral nature religious belief is essential. The deepest motives are religious motives, which derive their power from the future as well as from the present life. It is by the truths contained in the Word of God, that the conscience is touched, the heart moved, and the character transformed. Without this, men may be converted into law-abiding citizens, from considerations of self-interest ; but more than that is to be desired and sought by officers of prisons thoroughly alive to their responsibility. There is a profound philosophy in the prayer of the Saviour, "Sanctify them through thy truth," and in the saying of the Psalmist: "The entrance of thy word giveth light."

Chaplains themselves are perhaps liable to the temptation to depend too much upon the public services in prison chapels, and to neglect that loving, personal contact with individuals, which is a far more effective means of reaching the heart, and without which little confidence will be felt by prisoners or officers in the sincerity of their public ministrations. The daily life of men in your position is keenly scrutinized by those with whom you have to do. Probably no shrewder judges of character are anywhere upon earth to be found than those by whom you are constantly surrounded ; and you are judged perhaps more by what you fail to do, than by what you do. They know whether you really feel for the helpless occupants of prison cells or not ; and nothing but genuine devotion will impress them favorably toward the religion which you profess.

I take it that you are all Protestants, as I am. May I say that as such, you represent the great principle of freedom of thought and of religious belief ; that there are in most prisons representatives of other forms of religious thought, who are fairly entitled to the ministrations of their own religious teachers ; and that you, more than any other men, are bound to insist that they have them. Some who can not be reached by you may be influenced for good by others, in whom they have naturally a greater confidence. Let us be careful not to say, with John, when we see any one casting out devils, "Master, we forbade him, because he followeth not WITH US."

The opportunities to do good, which are open to you, are almost limitless. You may serve the prisoner not only while in prison, but after his discharge ; you may be a blessing not only to him but to his family. You may create to some extent the atmosphere by which the prisoner is surrounded ; and you can do much to develop a correct public opinion and sentiment with reference to the obligations of society to criminals.

I wish you Godspeed. May you realize the experience of Job : "When the ear heard me, then it blessed me ; and when the eye saw me, it gave witness to me : because I delivered the poor that cried, and the fatherless, and him that had none to help him. The blessing of him that was ready to perish came upon me. I was eyes to the blind, and feet was I to the lame. I was a father to the poor, and the cause which I knew not I searched out. And I brake the jaws of the Wicked One, and plucked the spoil out of his teeth."

I am very sincerely and truly yours,

FREDERICK HOWARD WINES.

Springfield, Illinois, June 12, 1886.

THE COLORADO PENITENTIARY.

We have an interesting letter from the Rev. E. C. Brooks, chaplain of the Colorado Penitentiary, in which he warmly eulogizes the management of the present warden, Gen. Cameron. The interest of Gov. Eaton in the prison question dates from his membership in the board of prison commissioners, some years ago. He gave the place of warden to Gen. Cameron, believing him to be not only a man of executive ability but a sympathizer with the principle that the discipline of a prison should be reformatory in its character. "The first time," says the Mr. Brooks, "that the new warden addressed the prisoners, he called them 'Brothers.'" It was a new experience to them, and marked an era in the life of many of them." Before this time, as we understand, there had been no chaplain, and no schools. There are now religious exercises on Sundays, a night school, and weekly lectures on subjects of general interest. Cruel punishments have been abolished. The earnings, under the improved system of government, have increased. A society for the care of discharged convicts has been organized, of which we have before made mention.

COUNTY HOMES FOR CHILDREN.

The Franklin County Childrens' Home in Ohio has published a truly admirable report for 1885–86, which contains the following account of the origin of the Ohio system :

The first well-decided efforts for rescuing children from association with paupers in county infirmaries commenced in 1858. The question was agitated throughout the State to such an extent that an act was passed by the general assembly in 1866–67, authorizing county commissioners of any county to take such preliminary steps as would result in the establishment of a Home for Children in every county of the State, if so desired by the people residing therein. It may in consequence be said that the movement to rescue children from daily contact with the abandoned and indigent classes which is gradually being perfected into a system, is the outgrowth of an enlightened public sentiment. It is proper, however, to state that the first person to carry into practical effect the work of furnishing and maintaining a home for homeless children, apart and separate from the county infirmary, was Miss Catherine A. Fay, of Washington county, who, at her own expense, erected a home for the children of that county who were occupants of the infirmary. On the first day of April, 1858, she received from the directors permission to take the infirmary children to her new home and assume charge of their support and proper education. Under her judicious management, for ten years, the homeless and helpless children of that county found not only a happy home, but received the necessary training and education to equip them for useful avocations. During all this period, Miss Fay was urging legislation upon the subject, in order that the work of rescuing little children from lives of vice and crime might become general throughout the State. As might well be surmised, the county in which the scene of her labors was laid, was the first in the State to accept the benefits of the new law, for in 1868 a home for children was constructed and put in operation in Washington county. Other counties followed in establishing homes. Franklin county purchased grounds and erected a magnificent structure for homeless children in 1880. From the initial point furnished by Miss Fay the noble work is going on, and before the lapse of many years every county in the State will have its own, or be embraced in a District Home.

On the subject of institution life *versus* placing-out, the superintendent remarks :

The system, if it may so be called, of district and county homes for children, has proved the most important factor yet introduced for diminishing the number of criminals, by making good citizens of the offspring of offenders. Home adoption of homeless children whose strong tendency is to drift into the permanently criminal classes is said to be one of the most practical aids yet devised to prevent recruiting the great army of tramps and criminals who prey upon property and disturb the peace of the people. "Home adoption," says one who is well advised, "is born of heavenly beneficence and blesses alike the giver and receiver." Having obtained full possession of a child, we will keep him in the Home, if necessary, till he reaches a self-supporting age, but we hope to do better than that and are not often disappointed. We wish to retain him long enough to become well informed of his disposition, and, if needful, to train him in the rudiments of cleanliness, morals, and religion. As long as he remains with us, we also look carefully to his education. But our prime object is to place him in a home as soon as one suitable can be found. Attending to this is a very large and responsible part of our work.

The statistics appended show the average number of children during the year to have been 175 ; the total cost of maintenance was $29,000, or at the rate of about $115 per capita. The number of admissions was 151 ; and the number indentured, 86.

THE CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY.

The Children's Aid Society of New York is a wonderful organization, in its magnitude, efficiency, and popularity with those upon whom charitable work in that city mostly depends for pecuniary support. It has been in existence for more than 30 years, and during that time has sheltered, partly fed, and instructed, over 300,000 homeless boys and girls, in its six lodging-houses ; has sent nearly 80,000 homeless persons to country homes, chiefly in the west ; and has taught, partly fed and clothed, in its 21 industrial schools, 200,000 destitute children, of whom a large proportion were little girls, who would otherwise have been vagabond and tempted on the streets. The result has been a great diminution in the number of crimes committed by children, not only relatively but absolutely, as is shown by the police records.

In evidence of the thoroughness with which the institutions belonging to this society are managed, it cites the fact that in the Newsboys' Lodging House, out of 212,605 boys, there has been not a single case of "foul-air" disease, nor even of ophthalmia, and only one death.

Of 3,140 children sent to the country, last year, 1,649 found homes in the State of New York, 253 were returned to friends, 58 sent to institutions, and 31 out of the country ; leaving 1,149 who went north, south, east or west, within the limits of the United States.

Kansas received the largest number, 272 ; then came Nebraska, 162 ; and after these, in order, New Jersey, 104 ; Delaware, 85 ; Iowa, 69 ; Missouri, 51 ; Illinois, 41 ; Minnesota, 39 ; Massachusetts and Virginia, 35 each ; Colorado, 30 ; Maryland and Michigan, 26 each ; Wisconsin, 25 ; Pennsylvania, 21 ; Dakota, 19 ; Florida, 12 ; Indiana and Arkansas, 10 each ; Texas, 9 ; California, 6 ; New Hampshire and Rhode Island, 3 each ; Vermont, 2 ; Maine and Wyoming, 1 each.

The following are the reasons assigned why the society prefers to send children to the west :

1. Children are taken into western families on an equality, and educated as their own, which gives them a superior position and, as they grow up, better chances for the future.
2. Sending them so far from the city lessens the dangers of their return, and of having to do the work over again.
3. The west offers better opportunities for placing large numbers in one locality, so that they may be watched over at a less cost than if scattered here and there in different eastern States.
4. Children who are not willing to go singly, even to very near places, will go gladly in companies to the west.

It must not be supposed that placing children in country homes is the main work of this organization. Last year, 246,875 lodgings and 324,495 meals were furnished to children in the lodging-houses under its care, the great majority of which were paid for—the number of free lodgings being 30,445, and of free meals, 64,943. The average number of lodgers nightly is 669, and the total number of different lodgers during the year, 13,212. The amount deposited by these children in the penny savings-banks was $7,276.41.

The daily average attendance in the industrial and night schools was 3,699, and the total number of scholars 11,960. They deposited in the penny savings-banks $1,128.34.

The society also maintains a sick-children's mission, a flower mission, a summer home at Bath, Long Island, and a health home for mothers with sick babies, at West Coney Island. The total number of beneficiaries, during the year, in all departments, was 38,311.

It is partially supported by the State and city of New York. The amount received from the Board of Education, out of the State school fund for pupils in industrial schools, was $33,259.69 ; and from the city and county of New York, out of the excise funds, $70,000. Its total current expenses were $219,558.94.

The moving spirit in all this work, the value of which cannot be computed, is Mr. Charles L. Brace, who is the secretary of the society.

IMMIGRATION AT NEW YORK.

The work of the New York Emigrant Commission is carried on under two general departments, known as the Emigrant Landing Department, at Castle Garden, and the Hospital and Refuge Department at Ward's Island.

On the arrival of a ship from a foreign port, it is boarded by an officer from Castle Garden, who examines and reports to the commission as to the cleanliness of the vessel, the number of steerage passengers, the number of births and deaths, if any, particulars of any sickness during the voyage, and the nature of any complaints the immigrants may have to make. After examination of their luggage on board ship by the customs officers, the immigrants are transferred to the landing depot by barge or steamboat, and are examined as they enter, by the officers of the bureau, to discover whether any of them are likely to become a public charge. They then pass into the rotunda of Castle Garden, where every thing possible is provided to secure their comfort : brokers to exchange foreign for American money, interpreters familiar with every European language, a telegraph office for the forwarding of dispatches, and a restaurant supplying food at reasonable charges. There is also a railroad office, in charge of the representative of the Trunk Lines Joint Agency, to protect them from ticket-swindlers. An information bureau aids them to find their friends in this country. No railroad runners are admitted ; but duly licensed boarding-house keepers are allowed to enter the rotunda. The prices charged for board in these houses are fixed by the commissioners, and the houses regularly inspected by its officers. There is a reception hospital for the sick ; a labor-bureau, maintained at the expense of the German Society, and Irish Emigrant Society, which finds employment for 15,000 immigrants annually, and a customs-bureau where duties on dutiable goods are collected. Castle Garden belongs to the city of New York, and the commissioners rent it from the corporation.

The commission owns 120 acres on Ward's Island, where there is an institution in three departments : a hospital, a refuge, and an insane asylum. The average number of inmates is about 300, in all the departments. The whole is under the superintendence of a physician, Dr. W. B. Marple, with two assistants, and a medical advisory board.

The total expenditure by this board is about $160,000 a year, which is met without cost to the State of New York, chiefly from the income from the tax of fifty cents for each immigrant landed, collected from the steamship companies by the United States Treasury Department, as provided in the act of Congress to regulate immigration. The board acts for the government under a contract between it and the Secretary of the Treasury.

One part of its duties (and a very important part it is), is to return to the countries from which they came, all immigrants who are ex-convicts or are unable to live among us without becoming a public charge as insane or paupers In 1885, the number sent back from the port of New York was 1,172. No doubt it would have been larger, but for the struggle to check the shipment of paupers and criminals to our shores in 1883, when evidence came to the commissioners, which led to an investigation and the establishment of the fact that large sums of money were being distributed among the officers of the almshouses of Ireland and Great Britain, to assist paupers and enfeebled persons to emigrate to America.

The present organization has been in existence since 1847. During these thirty-nine years, it has received 8,130,952 immigrants from foreign lands. The whole number who landed at New York last year was 336,337, of whom 55,160 were cabin passengers, and 281,177 came in the steerage. Of these, 291,066 were alien immigrants, of whom 281,177 landed at Castle Garden. One eighth of them were bound for Illinois, and a very large majority for the northwestern States.

SOLDIERS' HOMES.

The National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers is a single organization, with five branches—the Eastern, at Togus, Maine; the Southern, at Hampton, Virginia; the Central, at Dayton, Ohio; the Northwestern, at Milwaukee, Wisconsin; and the Western, at Leavenworth, Kansas. The managers are appointed by the President (except the President, the Chief-Justice, and the Secretary of War, who are members of the board *ex-officio*).

The average number of inmates during the year ending June 30, 1885 (the date of the last published report), was 8,050.

The whole number cared for to that date was:

In the Central Branch	21,801
In the Northwestern Branch	9,910
In the Eastern Branch	8,212
In the Southern Branch.	6,863
Total	46,786

But, deducting duplications—"gains by transfers" from one branch to another—the whole number of individuals cared for is 43,301.

The Western Home, at Leavenworth, was located at that point September 26, 1884, and was not prepared to receive inmates when this report was made. We are ashamed to have to record the fact that the location was made in part in consideration of a donation by the citizens of Leavenworth of 640 acres of land and $50,000 for embellishment of the grounds. These bids for location are in our opinion vicious in principle and in practice, and it is beneath the dignity of any government to accept or consider them. It is particularly unworthy of the government of the United States to sell the location of an institution for the care of its disabled defenders in time of war.

The homes "now contain more than double the number of men for which they were originally built." There are "fully 1,000 who have applied for admission, who are entitled to admission under the law. They can not be admitted, first, because there are no places for them, and second, because there is not money enough appropriated for their support."

The amount appropriated by Congress for the maintenance of the Home for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1885, was $1,299,134. This sum included construction and repairs, and a special allowance of $37,000 for the building and completion of a new hospital at Hampton. The appropriation for the year ending June 30, 1886, was $1,472,000. Besides these sums the board had an appropriation, in 1884, of $250,000 for the erection of the Western branch.

The government makes an annual appropriation of a little more than $200,000 for the support, clothing, and treatment, in the Government Hospital for the Insane, at Washington, of "the insane from the army and navy, marine corps, and revenue-cutter service, persons charged with or convicted of crime against the United States, inmates of the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers, and of all persons who have become insane since their entry into the military or naval service of the United States, and who are indigent."

The number of soldiers entitled to the benefits of these appropriations is increasing so rapidly, as the allotted time of natural life expires for men old enough to take an active part in a war which closed twenty-one years ago, that the National Home does not meet the demand for accommodation of persons of this class, and the States are moving for the establishment of State Homes for Soldiers and Sailors to supply this need. That it should be necessary for any State to do so does not seem to us to be creditable to Congress.

We repeat the suggestion of another, than whom no one is more competent to form a correct opinion, when we express the view that the care of disabled volunteers is the proper duty of the national government, and that it would perhaps be well for the States which have erected Homes to cede them to the government of the United States, on condition that the government shall assume the cost of their support. Or, should it not be thought advisable to cede them, the government should in any case provide whatever funds are required for carrying them on, and maintain a rigid supervision of them, in the form of an official inspection by its own officers, which should be the condition on which they should receive moneys from the national treasury.

THE MICHIGAN SOLDIERS' HOME.

This establishment was organized under Act No. 152 of the session of 1885, with its provisions set forth plainly in its title, viz.: "the establishment of a home for disabled soldiers, sailors, and marines in the State of Michigan."

The conditions of admission are decidedly catholic, including not only all Michigan soldiers, but also from other States, provided they were bona-fide citizens of Michigan for one year prior to June 5, 1885. Secton 11 of the act as follows:

> Sec. 11. All honorably discharged soldiers, sailors, and marines, who have served in the army or navy of the United States in the late war of the rebellion, and who are disabled by disease, wounds, or otherwise, and who have no adequate means of support, and by reason of such disability are incapable of earning their living, and who would be otherwise dependent upon public or private charity, shall be entitled to be admitted to said Home, subject to the rules and regulations that shall be adopted by the board of managers to govern the admission of applicants to said Home.

It has been the intention from the first to disassociate the Home from the idea of being a charitable institution in the strict letter of the meaning of that word, as the theory upon which it was established is, that the State owes this provision for the disabled soldiers, to the veterans who contributed so much to her glory in the civil war.

A committee was appointed by the last legislature to investigate this subject, and in their report occurs the following:

> The duty of the State of Michigan to care for their distressed and disabled soldiers is an imperative one. Every feeling of gratitude and humanity appeals to the State to take immediate steps to cherish and protect our disabled soldiers and sailors in a comfortable manner, not as public paupers, but as the honored and respected wards of the State.

The institution is now established in Grand Rapids, it having been decided to open a temporary home, until the permanent building shall be completed, which will be December 1, 1886.

Arrangements have been made with different persons by which board, lodging, baths, washing, and medical attendance are furnished at a stipulated sum per week, except at the American home, where the hospital has been established, as also the dispensary, and where the State is more directly in charge of the inmates.

The number on the rolls at this writing is 350, and applications for admission are being constantly received.

The rules are not rigid. Presence in quarters at 8 o'clock P.M. and good behavior is all that is required.

For the amount of good this institution is doing, the cost is but trifling. It is taking the old veterans from the poor-houses and restoring them to the feeling of a regained manhood. It takes the sting of unmerited poverty away from many a fireside, and with its tender care gives the lie to the old cynicism that "Republics are ungrateful"; and its influence will be felt in after years, should we ever have to call for soldiers again, for when we make our promises to healthy, robust men, that when they become disabled in our service, we will care for them, we can point to our soldiers' homes as standing monuments of the fulfilment of similar promises given years before.

SAMUEL WELLS.

Grand Rapids, Mich., June 18th.

LEGISLATION ON INSANITY.

There are few States in which the intervention of a judicial officer is not required, in some form, before some, if not all, insane persons can be legally committed to the care of an institution for the insane. If such intervention is necessary in some cases, why not in all? For, if the decision whether or not the order of a court is requisite in any particular case is left to any tribunal but the court itself, there is danger of error and of wrong.

The form of process upon which the court should base whatever order it may see fit to make in any given instance, is, as we have seen, not a mere medical certificate by some physician whom it may not know, nor, on the other hand, a solemn trial as of a criminal case, but an inquest by a commission which the court itself should choose and appoint.

The question now arises: To what court should jurisdiction in lunacy be granted?

Since the purpose of judicial intervention is in part to protect the property of the alleged lunatic, if he has any, it is usual to confer jurisdictlon in lunacy upon the probate court, or at least upon some court having probate jurisdiction, by whatever name it may be called.

There are some exceptions to this rule.

1. In some States jurisdiction is vested in the judge of a court. In Pennsylvania, it is in any law judge; in Massachusetts, in any judge of the supreme judicial court or superior court, in any county where he may be, or of the probate court, or of a police or municipal court, within his county; in New York, in any county judge, special county judge, or judge of a superior court or court of common pleas; and in South Carolina, the judge of a probate or of a circuit court may direct an order to any trial justice to hold an inquest, and upon the certificate of the finding of the commission by the justice to the judge, the latter may issue his order of commitment. In Kentucky, the judge of any court may act, when the circuit court is not in session. In Virginia, three justices of the peace, sitting together, and in West Virginia a single justice, may order a patient sent to an asylum for the insane. In Indiana and Tennessee, the inquest is by a justice or justices; but they have not power to make the order of commitment.

Presumably the object of legislation of this character is to afford abundant facilities for prompt action in emergency cases. A judge may be reached, when a court would not be in session. And the number of justices of the peace is so great that the difficulty of bringing the patient and the justice together, either at his office or at the patient's residence, is reduced to a minimum.

This practice is nevertheless open to criticism, upon the double ground that it is too informal, and that it does not provide for that complete record which we shall in the end find to be of more importance than is usually supposed.

To illustrate the degree of informality often attaching to inquests in lunacy, the fact may be mentioned that in Indiana, it is the clerk of the court, and not the judge, who passes upon the report of the inquest made by two justices of the peace. The clerk of the chancery court, in Mississippi, may (in vacation) direct the confinement of any lunatic in the asylum.

It appears to be more simple and regular, and equally efficacious, to provide, as is provided in the statutes of Illinois, that for the purpose of holding an inquest, the court shall be considered as always open; or, in Kansas, that the judge shall, on application, in vacation, call a special term for this purpose.

2. There are three States—Iowa, Nebraska and Dakota—in which a similar system has been adopted, of county commissioners of insanity in each county. These commissions are constituted as follows: with the clerk of the circuit court, in Iowa, but with the clerk of the district court in Nebraska, and with the judge of probate in Dakota, are associated two other citizens of the county, one of whom must be a respectable physician and the other a respectable attorney. In Iowa and Nebraska, the associate members of the board are appointed by the judge of the court; in Dakota, they are elected by the board of county commissioners. Their usual place of meeting is at the office of the judge or of the clerk of the court. The judge is, in Dakota, *ex-officio*, the president of the board: in the two other States, the clerk is *ex-officio* clerk of the board. The judge or clerk, as the case may be, is the only officer authorized by law to sign notices, warrants, subpœnas or other process of the board: he keeps a record of their proceedings on a separate docket; and all papers connected with any inquest are filed in his office.

It occurs to us to ask: Of what special use are the respectabte physician and attorney associated with the court officer in the discharge of his duties under the law? Why might he not act as well alone? If it is said, in reply, that the physician is the one who determines in fact the question of the mental condition of the alleged lunatic, we ask again: In what capacity? as judge or as witness? If the function of a physician in investigations of the sanity of persons supposed to be insane, is, as we understand it to be, simply that of a witness, this medical commissioner can not fulfil that function. On what does he depend, in the formation of his opinion? on the testimony of the physician in the case, or on his own personal observations? The necessity for an attorney is still less obvious.

We call attention also to the fact that the court officer upon whom the burden of responsibility seems primarily, after all, to rest, is not, in Iowa and Nebraska, the judge, but the clerk, of the court.

3. In a number of States, jurisdiction in lunacy is not exclusive in any one court, but is concurrent in several.

In Wisconsin, Idaho, and California, for instance, it is in any court of record; in Kentucky, in any court having general equity jurisdiction; and in Rhode Island, in any justice court.

We have not reached the point at which our objections to this division of jurisdiction will be clearly apprehended, but will content ourselves with the remark that it is too great a division of responsibility. The responsibility of a court for its action in matters affecting so wide a circle of interests as are often involved in the decision of the presence or absence of mental disease, and of the disposition to be made of the person and estate of the individual adjudged to be insane, is very great; and the record should be full and specific. It should be accessible; but the more widely it is scattered through many court dockets, the less will be known as to the actual condition and treatment of the helpless insane.

4. There are States, in which, as in the city of Baltimore, jurisdiction is vested in the criminal courts. If the same court never enjoyed or exercised jurisdiction in lunacy, which exercises criminal jurisdiction, the peril of confounding crime and insanity, in the popular estimation, would be far less than it is.

Enough has been said, to demonstrate that there exists in our law-making bodies much confusion of thought on the whole subject; and this will be still more apparent as we proceed.

In our next article, we shall enter upon the consideration of court proceedings in lunacy, as they are and as they should be.

INSANE CONVICTS.

The disposition to be made of insane convicts is a perplexing question. It is agreed by all that they cannot be properly cared for in ordinary prison cells, and that they should be specially provided for somewhere. But the prison authorities, as a rule, object to the creation of a special department for them in connection with a penitentiary; the

medical officers of institutions with one voice exclaim against the evils that grow out of their commitment to hospitals or asylums devoted to the care of the non-criminal insane; and the only satisfactory way seems to establish separate institutions for their especial benefit. Such establishments should be enclosed by a wall, as is a penitentiary; but the internal arrangement of the buildings need not differ essentially from that seen in any well-planned insane hospital. The objection to separate institutions, in most States, is the small number of persons included in this class. The expense of separate provision for them is too great.

The State of New York, at Auburn, has such an institution. It is supposed by many that it is connected with the Auburn penitentiary. Such is not the case, however.

The act of 1855, it is true, directed the State Prison Inspectors to make suitable provision for insane convicts in one of the State prisons; and in 1857 an appropriation was made of $20,000, to "be expended on the grounds occupied by the State prison at Auburn." But the organizing act of 1858 made it independent of the prison by empowering the Prison Inspectors, under whose charge, at that time, were all the prisons of the State, to appoint the superintendent, etc. In 1869, the corporate title of the institution was changed from "State Lunatic Asylum for Insane Convicts" to "State Asylum for Insane Criminals."

The distinction between insane convicts and insane criminals is this: The former class have been convicted of crime, and their insanity has developed while serving sentence, but insane criminals have not been convicted of crime. On the contrary, they have escaped conviction of criminal acts committed by them, on the ground of insanity.

A law passed in 1884 allowed superintendents of asylums for the insane to apply to any justice of the supeme court for an order of transfer of any patient confined in any such asylum, upon a criminal charge, or who, at the time of commitment, is under conviction for crime or has been tried and acquitted thereof on the ground of insanity, to the asylum at Auburn. The passage of this act was rendered necessary by certain amendments to the criminal law, in 1874 and 1875, by which persons accused of arson, murder, attempted murder, highway robbery, or misdemeanor, might before or after trial be committed by any court to any State asylum. In the 25th report of the institution a very good description of it may be found. The front walls are of stone, the rear walls of brick. The wings are covered by a luxuriant growth of ivy. The main building consists of a centre with east and west wings terminating in transepts; the centre is three stories in height, the wings have but two stories. But an additional wing, of three stories, fronting to the west, was erected in 1873–76. The original wings have rooms only on one side of the corridor, which is lighted by a window opposite each room; but in the new wing there are rooms on each side of the corridor, which has an alcove on one side, in the centre, and a bay window at the end. In the rear of the centre building, and connected with it by a covered corridor, is a large structure devoted to the kitchen, bakery, amusement hall, officers' quarters, etc. The outbuildings comprise a laundry, shops, boiler-house, carriage-house, stables, piggery, ice-house, and conservatory. There are two small airing-courts, one for each sex, and nearly five acres of productive fruit and vegetable garden. The wards are cheerful, being painted in colors, adorned with pictures, comfortably furnished, and decorated with flowers in pots and singing birds. There are no prison cells, and but six "seclusion rooms"; the latter are precisely like other bedrooms, with the single exception that they have inside wooden shutters, which can be locked.

Dr. MacDonald, the medical superintendent, says:

Visitors passing through the wards of this asylum are struck by the marked absence of noise or disturbance of any kind—this being the usual condition by night and day. They not unfrequently ask to be shown "the violent cases," "those you have to keep tied up in their cells, or in strait-jackets"; and when informed that no mechanical restraint of any kind is used here, that there is no "disturbed" ward, and that the patients they have seen are the worst cases we have, they are apt to look incredulous, apparently unable to realize that criminal lunatics are controlled by kindly influences, and that order and quiet prevail among what they had supposed to be the most violent class of insane.

The whole number of patients treated in this institution, from its opening in 1859 to the close of the fiscal year 1885, has been 776, of whom 594 have been discharged (212 of them as recovered), and there were remaining, on the 30th of last September, 182.

The methods of discharging the patients vary according to their legal status, and are as follows:

Convicts received from State prison are, on recovery, transferred to Auburn Prison. If received from the State Reformatory (Elmira) or a county penitentiary, they are returned to the institution from which they came.

Convicts recovering after expiration of their term of imprisonment are liberated.

Convicts continuing insane beyond the period for which they were sentenced to prison, are detained, if considered dangerous or likely to be benefited by further treatment in the asylum. If regarded as incurable and harmless, they may be discharged to the custody of the superintendent of the poor of the county of their conviction; or they may, with the approval of the State commissioner in lunacy, be removed by relatives or friends, who must file with the medical superintendent of the asylum a bond, with sureties approved by a county judge, for their "peaceable behavior, safe custody, and comfortable maintenance without further public charge."

Criminal patients, on recovery, if under indictment, may be returned to the custody of the court on whose order they were received, to be put upon trial or otherwise disposed of. If acquitted of crime upon the order of a justice of the supreme court of the judicial district in which the asylum is located, based upon a certificate of recovery signed by the medical superintendent and approved by the State commissioner in lunacy.

Patients of either class, found to be not insane, are disposed of in the same manner as though recovered.

To the above extracts we add one of some interest, relating to the peculiarities of the criminal insane.

I have been struck with the frequency of cases in which there was an absence of expressed delusions, although the manner and conduct were clearly indicative of a delusional state. Comparing these individuals with their former selves, we find undoubted evidence of a departure from their normal mental state. They have become sullen, morose, and morbidly irritable. They rebel against the ordinary rules of discipline, and make unprovoked assaults upon those around them, without apparent motive and without offering any explanation therefor. That they are suffering from impairment of bodily functions is shown by sleeplessness, loss of appetite, coated tongue, foul breath, constipation, a "greasy" condition of the skin, and a livid, puffy appearance of the extremities, indicating a relaxed state of the blood-vessels. They are generally coherent in conversation, do not complain of being ill, nor apply for medical treatment. They frequently continue in the performance of their allotted tasks in prison for months, before the attention of those in daily contact with them is attracted to their mental disturbance. From this condition they either recover or gradually drift downward to complete dementia, with no outward exhibition of delirium or mental excitement, to mark the course of their disease. The occurrence of acute, delirious mania, according to my observation, is exceptional among the criminal insane—melancholia and dementia, with an ex-occasional case of subacute mania, being the predominating types of insanity observed here. A certain proportion of cases, usually those of hardened criminals, are characterized by the most pronounced vicious tendencies, their insanity apparently expressing itself in a marked exaggeration of the depravity and vice displayed by them prior to the onset of their disease. On the mental side this is substantially the only evidence of disease which these cases present. Physically, however, their condition is marked more or less by the signs of bodily impairment above referred to. Being known to the authorities as abandoned and depraved individuals, it is not surprising that their insanity is not recognized by casual observers. We may readily admit such cases into the category of mental disease, without in any way countenancing the dogma that insanity and crime are convertible terms. The conduct of such, when first admitted, is characterized by the most striking evidences of depravity. They are profane and obscene in language; tear and destroy clothing, bedding, and furniture; strike, steal, lie, and soil themselves and their surroundings, apparently from mere wantonness. They sleep badly, and display the resistance to the effects of sleep-producting remedies common to lunatics. They are generally alike indifferent to coercive measures and to comfort; and it is only by constant and persistent endeavor, firmly but kindly applied by those in immediate charge of them, that they can be trained into decent habits and deportment.

Do not think of knocking out another's brains because he differs from you: it would be as rational to knock yourself on the head because you differ from yourself ten years ago.—HORACE MANN.

REVIEW.

Our Penal Machinery and its Victims. By John P. Altgeld. New aud revised edition. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Company, 1886.—Pp. 151.

Mr. Altgeld, who is an attorney engaged in the active practice of his profession in the city of Chicago, has given to the public a very readable book. Like Mr. Harrison's compendium of the lunacy laws, it is printed, at his personal expense, for gratuitous circulation, and may be had on application to the author.

The first part treats principally of the unnecessary use of the prison as a means of dealing with offenders against law; the second part, of the prison-labor question.

Mr. Altgeld says that the arrests by the police alone in Chicago each year aggregate a number equivalent to five per cent. of the population. He thinks that, including arrests by constables, sheriffs, and other officials, State and federal, the above estimate of five per cent. will, when applied to the entire country, be not far out of the way.

Assuming, then, that we have, in the United States, 50,000,000 population, it follows that there are in the neighborhood of 2,500.000 arrests every year (some writers estimate the number much higher); and, assuming further that forty per cent. of these were repeaters (this is sufficiently large when the whole country is included, for outside of cities their number is much smaller), it will still leave 1,500,000 as the number of persons arrested for the first time each year. That is, one million and a half of human beings are annually broken into what may be called a criminal experience.

He estimates the number who are annually put in jail for the first time at 96,900, and says:

I will not here discuss the moral effect of arrest, imprisonment, etc., on the prisoner himself, but simply on those standing in close relationship to him, as father, mother, brother, sister, child, etc. The disgrace, the odium, the pain, reaches out remorselessly to those, and to a greater or less extent they suffer on account of his fate. It is safe to say that there are at least five persons, on an average, who stand in this relation to every man who is wearing striped clothing and responding to a number in a State prison, to every one who is breathing the corroding air of the county jail, as well as to him who, for the first time, feels the ignominy of having rough hands laid on him and being deprived of his liberty. Multiply, now, the foregoing numbers by five, and then behold the multitude who are directly affected, who feel the shock, the quiver of every blow that is struck by our penal machinery.

Nearly a million of men, he thinks, are employed in some capacity or other in the administration of our penal system. He estimates the cost of all our prisons, with their equipment and the moneys invested in manufacturing enterprises carried on in them, at $400,000,000.

In 1880, the average cost in Illinois of every prisoner in jail, including expenses of arrest, etc., was about $27. Assuming this to be a fair average, it would make $4,087,800 as the total expense for jail prisoners for a year, on the present basis of population. For the year 1882, the expense of the police department of Chicago was a little over $800,000, making an average of about $24 for each of the 32,800 arrests. As the police department of Chicago is run as economically and the force is as effective and well managed as any in the land, this is a low average; and yet if this sum is multiplied by the total arrests throughout the land, it would make $36,000,000 annually as the amount paid by the government for arrests simply, to which most of the jail expenses—the costs of prosecution and of confinement in the larger prisons—must be added.

This expensive, complicated, burdensome machinery, in his opinion, accomplishes no good results commensurate with its cost:

The idea that one half of the several millions annually arrested must go on and become chronic criminals, has something appalling in it. And when we consider that it is from this throng that the majority of the desperate and vicious criminals come, the question again suggests itself, whether there is not something the matter with the system; whether the system is not responsible for a part of this result; whether, in fact, the system we now have, instead of being reformatory and preventive, is not in reality debasing and productive.

The above extracts indicate the point of view from which the author approaches his subject. We have space for no more, except his summing up of the complaints to be made against the penal system as we have it:

(1) Many are imprisoned, before trial and after, and broken into the prison life and brought in contact with the criminal atmosphere, and thus started on the downward road, who ought not to have been imprisoned at all, and who, had they been differently treated, might have made good citizens.

(2) The pole-star of the present system seems to be punishment, whereas the protection of society should be its sole object; and as punishment never made a sincere convert, and as the multitude of first offenders comes from the weaker class, they should be treated rather as wards, whom it may be necessary to confine, but whom it is yet necessary to train and educate, if possible, into good citizens.

(3) At present our prisons do not, as a rule, reform the prisoners, but turn them loose at the expiration of sentence, in a condition which soon returns a great per cent. of them to the prison.

(4) The really vicious and dangerous criminals are treated like the well intentioned but weak; are at the beginning not convicted with promptness; are discharged after short terms of imprisonment when they ought not to be, and that in a condition which almost precludes their doing any thing but commit crime.

Without attempting to state Mr. Altgeld's suggestions as to the remedies for the evils which he deplores, we commend his book to all who feel any interest in the promotion of public morals and the suppression of crime.

FIGURES FROM THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

We have received, through the courtesy of the State Charities Aid Association of New York, a copy of the final estimate of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of the City and County of New York, payable from the Excise Fund in aid of asylums, reformatories, and charitable institutions. The Board of Estimate is composed of the mayor, the comptroller, the president of the board of aldermen, and the president of the department of taxes and assessments. The estimate referred to was adopted at a meeting held in the mayor's office, December 31, 1885. It is not news, therefore, but it serves to give an idea of the magnitude of the interest which it represents, and merits a place in our columns. It is as follows:

New York Asylum for Idiots, for furnishing clothing for 40 inmates	$980 00	
For deficiency of 1887	88 00	
		$1,068 00
American Female Guardian Society		25,000 00
Children's Aid Society		70,000 00
Children's Fold of the City of New York. Estimated average number of children, 160, at $2 per week each		16,640 00
Foundling Asylum of the Sisters of Charity. Estimated average number of children, 1,657, at thirty-eight cents per day each	$229,825 90	
Estimated average number of homeless, needy mothers, nursing their own infants, 93, at $18 per month each	20,088 00	
		249,913 80
Hebrew Benevolent Society of the City of New York. Estimated average number of inmates, 545, at $110 per annum each, say		60,000 00
Hudson River State Hospital. Estimated average number of inmates, 26, at $4.50 per week each, say	$6,300 00	
Deficiency of 1884	273 59	
Deficiency of 1885, including clothing	2,500 00	
		9,073 59
Institution for Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes. For education and support of 50 county pupils, at $300 each	$15,000 00	
For clothing 25 State pupils, at $30 each	750,00	
		15,750 00
New York Institution for the Blind. For clothing 175 pupils, at $50 each, estimated	$8,750 00	
For deficiency of 1885	97 01	
		8,847 01

New York Catholic Protectory. Estimated average number of inmates, 2,200, at $110 per annum each		242,000 00
Le Couteulx St. Mary's Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes. For clothing		30 00
New York Infant Asylum. Estimated average number of children, 825, at 38 cents per day each	$45,077 50	
Estimated number of obstetrical cases, 21, at $25 per month each	6,300 00	
Estimated number of homeless, needy mothers, nursing their own infants, 112, at $18 per month each	24,192 00	
For deficiency of 1885	8,000 00	
		83,569 50
New York Infirmary for Women and Children. Estimated number of obstetrical cases, 145, at $25 each, say	$3,635 00	
Estimated average number of homeless, needy mothers, nursing their own infants, 4, at $18 per month each, say	865 00	
		4,500 00
New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf aud Dumb. For furnishing clothing for 184 State pupils, by order of the superintendent of public instruction, at $30 each,	$5,520 00	
For education and support of 36 county pupils, at $300 each	10,800 00	
		16,320 00
New York Juvenile Asylum. Estimated average number of inmates 950, at $110 per annum each		104,500 00
Magdalen Female Benevolent Society and Home for Fallen Women. Estimated average number of inmates, 10, at $110 per annum each		1,100 00
New York Society for the Relief of the Ruptured and Crippled. Estimated average number of inmates, 170, at $150 per annum each	$25,500 00	
For deficiency of 1885	200 00	
		25,700 00
New York State Lunatic Asylum. Estimated average number of inmates, 5, at $240 per annum each	$1,200 00	
For deficiency of 1884	325 50	
		1,525 50
Protestant Episcopal House of Mercy. Estimated average number of inmates, 20, at $110 per annum each		2,200 00
Nursery and Child's Hospital. Estimated average number of children, at $10 per month each, say	$74,500 00	
Estimated average number of lying-in women, 134, at $5 per week each, say	35,500 00	
		110,000 00
Roman Catholic House of the Good Shepherd. Estimated average number of inmates, 54, at $110 per annum each, say		6,000 00
St. Joseph's Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes. For education and support of 60 county pupils, at $300 each per annum,	$18,000 00	
For clothing of 51 State pupils, at $30 each	1,830 00	
		19,830 00
State Asylum for Insane Criminals at Auburn. Estimated average number of inmates, 7, at $208 per annum each	$1,456 00	
For clothing, at $25 each	175 00	
		1,631 00
Shepherd's Fold of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the State of New York		5,000 00
State Homœopathic Asylum for the Insane. Estimated average number of inmates, 11, at $3.75 per week each	$2,145 00	
For clothing and other expenses, at $30 each	330 00	
		2,475 00
Five Points House of Industry. Estimated number of inmates, 200, at $52 each per annum		10,400 00
Association for Befriending Children and Young Girls. Estimated number of inmates, 230, at $1 per week each, say		12,000 00
For support of children committed by police magistrates to various charitable institutions in the city of New York, at a per capita allowance of $2 per week—deficiency for 1885		100,000 00
Total appropriations		$1,205,073 50

The estimates contained in the above list are in addition to an estimate of $1,552,300 for the Department of Public Charities and Correction, which, we suppose, comes out of the general fund.

In other words, the city of New York expends, for the support of charitable and correctional institutions, annually, the sum of $2,750,000. This does not include the support of prisoners in the county jail, the expenses of police station-houses, nor the cost of burials of honorably discharged soldiers, saiiors, and marines.

INSTITUTION ANECDOTES.

A visitor to the Michigan Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb desired to know whether the deaf are taught by raised letters.

A lady teacher in the Kentucky Institution was telling her class about the day of final judgment, and how the dead would hear the sound of the trumpet and rise to stand before God and give an account of the deeds done in the body. Little Phil Rogers fell into a brown study. His face wore the expression of one who protests against an injustice, and with the peculiar "how" of the sign language, he asked what the deaf-mutes were to do.

A Sunday-school teacher visited a school for feeble-minded children in a western State and talked to the inmates very earnestly on the subject of prayer, and urged them to form the habit of praying every night. A few days afterward one of the boys was overheard to say to another: "Johnny, did you say your prayers last night?" No, I did n't; nor I did n't say them the night afore; nor I did n't say them the night afore that; and what 's more, I ain't a-going to say them—I ain't one of the skeery kind."

Two of the trustees of a certain hospital for the insane visited the institution together, and went through the wards for female patients. One of them was a banker, of very staid habits, and a keen sense of propriety on all occasions; the other was very much of a man of the world, a soldier and politician, with uncommon tact and ready wit. A lady patient, seeing them enter the ward, sprang from her seat and presented herself to the banker, with the exclamation: "It 's a long time since I had a kiss; won't you kiss me?" He looked perplexed, reflected that it would not do at all to have it said in the newspapers that the trustees made a practice of kissing patients on their rounds of inspection of the institution, and declined. She then turned to the soldier, and said: "Won't you kiss me?" He looked down at her from beneath great shaggy eyebrows with a kind, quizzical smile, and replied: "Why, madam, that would be against my principles"; and after a moment's pause added: "But I will do better for you than that." "What will you do?" "I will let you kiss me." Thereupon she seized her opportunity, kissed him first on one cheek and then on the other, and with a gesture of intense satisfaction cried out: "I knew he was a gentleman by his looks."

FACT AND OPINION.

The Insane.

The contract for rebuilding the insane department of the Philadelphia Almshouses has been let, for $59.936.

The Hospital for the Insane, at Rochester, is erecting new buildings, for which the contract was let at $38,438.

Dr. Charles K. Mills read a paper before the Pennsylvania State Sanitary Convention on the influence of overwork in the production of nervous diseases and insanity.

In pursuance of a resolution passed by the Antwerp Congress, a conference of Austro-Hungarian specialists will be held at Vienna, December 26–27, 1887, to revise the nomenclature of mental disorders.

Dr. Gudden, the physician of the late King of Bavaria, who lost his life while caring for him, was a medical professor in the university and physician in charge of the Munich Insane Asylum, which is said to be the best in Germany. His views on asylum organization and management were very advanced. The *London Lancet* is of the opinion that the king was eccentric, but not insane; and that he committed suicide.

It will probably be always a vexed question whether intemperate habits are the cause of insanity, or insanity is the cause of intemperate habits. As the result of many years' careful study of the causes of insanity, I can only remark that in the great majority of those particular cases which have come under my notice, the evidence is in favor of the conclusion that the insanity causes the intemperate habits. The reverse only happens when there is already some disease which is due to impaired nutrition. Perhaps it is for that reason that the descendants of a drunkard are more liable to insanity than the drunkard himself.—Mr. WICKHAM in Report of Newcastle-on-Tyne Asylum.

Dr. Carpenter, of Schuylkill, read an address before the Pennsylvania State Medical Society, on mental disorders, in which he said that only twenty per cent. of insane patients sent to asylums recover, but that more could be cured by proper care. As causes of insanity, he laid stress on our fast American life, the sensationalism of the press leading to insanity and crime, early addiction to tobacco and alcohol, the strain of political excitement, speculation, etc. The society resolved to urge county medical societies to appoint committees to visit asylums to investigate the condition of insane patients and see that they receive proper treatment and have good sanitary environment.—*Med. Record.*

Dr. Gené y Partagas, physician to the Barcelona Asylum, Nueva-Bélen, in a clinical lecture published in *La Independencia Médica*, gives a *résumé* of the more important surgical maladies he has met with among lunatics. Erysipelas, he says, and especially erysipelas of the face, is very common, and should be watched for by the physician, as lunatics frequently do not trouble themselves about cutaneous affections. Eczema is also very common. As to furunculosis, he remarks that he has never seen it followed by cure or alleviation of the mental condition. The chief self-destructive propensity of melancholiacs seems to be to mutilate the genital organs. One man showed the doctor, as an evidence of his operative skill, a testicle which he had contrived to excise with the help of a piece of broken glass. Another patient managed with a similar implement to perform a true œsophagotomy. Dr. Gené remarks that it is wonderful how insensible they seem to the pain they thus inflict upon themselves. With regard to the difficulty of retaining splints on fractures, he says that for many years poroplastic appliances have been employed in Nueva-Bélen with the most satisfactory results. In conclusion, he calls the attention of his hearers to the importance of careful examinations of the inguinal and crural regions of lunatics, who may have new herniæ or inflammations in old ones for some time without complaining. —*Lancet.*

There will be during the present session of the Quebec legislature, a good deal of discussion concerning the now notorious asylum, the St. Jean de Dieu (Longue Pointe). An act passed last session for the better management of the institution has, so far, been a dead letter, the Lady Superior, Sister Theresa de Jesus, having refused to allow its provisions to be carried into effect. The report of the government inspecting physician, Dr. H. Howard, has just been published, and in it a remarkable state of affairs is disclosed. The Reverend Mother Superior, on being requested to accept the board of physicians appointed by the government, flatly refused, and appointed her own medical men to take charge of the patients. Dr. Howard advises the government to annul the contract in its entirety, and to take the provincial asylums under its own control. If it is not prepared to take this step, he then suggests that the nuns have charge of the idiots and imbeciles, and that the insane be treated in a special hospital, under the control of a medical board appointed by government. With regard to the contract system, he says: "It is barbarous to have the incurable insane treated by contract, even though the contractors be saints. I believe it a mistake that religious communities should become contractors when, although they take payment from the civil authorities, they refuse to yield to civil power, unless by so doing it will be in accord with the obedience due to their superior-general."—*Med. News.*

Dr. Hutchinson, superintendent of the Western Pennsylvania Hospital for the Insane, has written for the *Medical Record* an article on the care of the insane prior to their admission to an asylum. He is inclined to believe that the treatment patients receive before commitment to an institution is one reason why more are not cured, and laments the common prejudice against such commitment. Placing the insane in jail is a peculiarly objectionable practice. He says: "Of forty-five patients committed to this hospital by order of the court, sixteen were committed directly from jails, and but three of this number recovered, though a large proportion were acute cases." He adds: "A no less important factor in the care of the insane is the time and manner of their removal. The larger number of patients when admitted are in poor bodily health, and there can be no doubt that the condition of many is made worse by the fatigue and exposure incident to the journey. In acute cases the exhaustion following is often fatal. In this hospital fifty-nine deaths occurred during the past year, eight died, whose period of residence was but twelve days; and two were in a dying condition at the time of their admission; and died within seventy-two hours after. One of these, suffering from acute melancholia, was in a state of collapse when admitted; the other, who had typhoid fever, was beyond the aid of human skill when brought to the door. Female patients should always be accompanied by some female friend or relative in whom the patient has confidence, to whom she can make known her wants and necessities. The total disregard of these proprieties, as shown so often in female patients brought to asylums in the custody of men, and who are perhaps strangers, is frequently attended with great mental excitement, prolonging the insanity, and operating largely against possible recovery. All superintendents will agree with me, I think, in regard to the difficulty of obtaining a history of patients; so often the friends hesitate or dislike to state the particulars and etiology of the patient's trouble, thereby embarrassing the physician in his future treatment of the case, and also acting as a hindrance to the patient's recovery."

The Paris correspondent of the *London Lancet* writes that three Frenchwomen (sisters and spinsters) were implicated in the murder of an old lady, who was also a spinster, in whose service one of them was employed as housekeeper. The murder was committed by poisoning, the body cut to pieces, and the pieces steeped in lime and buried in the old lady's garden, at Villemomble, a small suburban town near Paris. On the trial, judgment was suspended, on the ground of irresponsibility, at the recommendation of the late Dr. du Saulle, medical expert to the judicial courts of Paris. The three sisters were consigned to the St. Anne Asylum, for observation, where the superintendent, Dr. Ball, recently delivered an interesting clinical lecture to prove the accuracy of du Saulle's diagnosis. The patients in question were presented to the audience, and pronounced by the lecturer to be hereditarily insane. All three are subjects of mystic insanity (*folie mystique*), which differs physiologically from the mania of persecution (*délire des persécutions*) in the sense that in the former it is the sense of sight which perceives, but in the latter principally the hearing. The first who was introduced was Honorine Mercier, aged 55. The professor asked her to give an account of one of her visions, which she did without hesitation. It was as follows: "I had the first vision at the age of eleven years. It was the night of my first communion. On awaking, I saw, to my great astonishment, that the candle was lighted. While looking at it, I felt myself all at once lifted up in the air. I arrived in the midst of a delicious atmosphere, very respirable, and highly perfumed. I was in heaven. I felt nothing in me of matter, and yet there flowed in my veins something like the waters of felicity. Then followed the most exquisite music. It was the angels, who were singing to God. This lasted four hours, after which I found myself in my bed." While uttering this narrative, her features, which are very mobile, seemed to reflect each of the ecstatic sensations which her dream might have caused. During her recital, she mixed up with her phrases extracts from sermons, Biblical citations, and some pleasantry of rather doubtful propriety. After this, she related how, in one of her visions, she believed herself to be the victim of an *enlèvement* or forcible abduction. Sidonie Mercier is less disposed to talk than Honorine. As for Euphrasie, she has all her sister Honorine's mysticism. Like her, she has visions, hears voices, obeys orders given her by God, etc. The object of the murder was to appropriate to herself the property of her mistress, consisting of the house they lived in, and a large sum in bank-notes, coupons, railway shares, etc., the changing of which excited suspicion and led to the ultimate discovery of her crime. Prof. Ball affirms that she is a lunatic.

Idiots.

The enormous difficulty of imparting knowledge to children of feeble intellect is illustrated by a case reported by the Newark City Home. "One boy came to us at thirteen years of age, who, it was claimed, had been at school for four years, but had not learned to read. An examination proved that he knew but three letters of the alphabet. A month of school work showed no progress. I was induced to try him with my class of 'irregulars,' and soon found that ordinary methods would not avail. He was given *one letter daily*, and compelled to walk to and fro with his eye upon that letter, pronouncing it distinctly at every step. This was continued at intervals during his daily half-hour with me. The result was that he learned to spell easy words, and, at the end of *two years*, he could read the simple lessons of the primer. He learned to add and subtract, could write legibly, and compose a simple letter. At this stage he left us. His people were delighted at his achievements." A

class has been established in this institution for the purpose of studying and defining personal duties. Mr. Harrison, the superintendent, says: "We have started with the proposition that the normally-developed man is one who has a body strong and healthful in all its parts; a mind stored with useful knowledge, quick in its perceptions, accurate in its reasoning, and correct in its conclusions; and a moral and religious nature, governing both body and mind, so that in thought, feeling, and action the precepts of God are obeyed. What is necessary to be done through personal endeavor, as a means toward an approximation to this standard, constitutes the text of our daily lessons."

The Deaf and Dumb.

The Cuba Institution at Havana is temporarily suspended for want of funds.

Mrs. Esther Flint, matron of the Central New York Institution, died, May 22d, of epilepsy.

The Cincinnati Deaf-Mute Society is to have a pic-nic at the Highland House on the 14th of August.

In India the untaught deaf and dumb outnumber the educated deaf of all ages in all the other countries of the world.—Dr. DAVID BUXTON.

Mr. Andrew Carnegie has given the Western Pennsylvania Institution $5,000 for a library fund, the interest only to be used in the purchase of books.

A deaf-mute who was fond of attending the opera said to Prof. Soret: "When music is going on I feel something here (putting his hand on his stomach)."

In April last, at Bourogne, near Belfort, France, M. Th. Mettenet commenced the publication of *Le Surdophone*, an international and polyglot journal of institutions for the education of the deaf, the blind, and the feeble-minded.

The first deaf and dumb pupil in England entered the London Asylum, Old Kent Road, in 1792. At the census of 1851 no fewer than 816 children were at school, all of them kept there by charity. In 1861 the number had risen to 1,000; in 1871 to 1,292. All was yet due to voluntary action. In 1871 the Elementary Education Act was passed, and in 1881 the London School Board had charge of 183 children. In 1884 there were 1,564 children in voluntary schools; and, adding those in board schools, a total of 1,882 out of 3,508 children of school age (from five to fifteen years). The average time at school is four and a half years; but some children go longer and others not so long; and undoubtedly a large number never go to school at all.—J. P. BARRETT, of the Margate Institution.

I do not expect an ordinary deaf person to read the lips of ordinary speakers speaking in their usual way, in any thing else than common, well-known, and constantly reiterated phrases. Nor do I look to him to be able to take part, as a person in the possession of hearing could, in an animated conversation between several people, even if he have a full view of their faces. Neither do I expect that he—I am always speaking of a man of ordinary ability—can ever get the conditions suitable for him to understand and be edified by an ordinary sermon or lecture. The power of lip-reading which can be gained by the deaf is indeed wonderful, but there is a limit to it. If it were as efficient a medium as the sound of speech, it might almost claim to take a place among the subjects of education among the hearing.—RICHARD ELLIOT.

At the time of the Brussels Conference, I visited in Belgium an institution which had been a pure oral school for fifteen years. I was told by the officials that signs were forbidden everywhere (tout défendu). The children were preparing to go to church, and I noticed that while some of them spoke to the officer in charge of them, others used signs. In church the poor children were placed where they could not see the officiating clergymen. Outside the church I met half a dozen young men, former pupils of the school, and to my surprise they were conversing in signs. I entered into conversation with them and found them to be intelligent. One of them asked me whether in the school I was engaged in, signs were allowed. When I answered in the affirmative, there was a general approval, and the prohibition of signs in the school where they were educated met with severe condemnation. I inquired of them to what extent they could understand by reading from the lips, and the reply was: "About one inch" (pointing to half the length of the forefinger), "but by signs" (pointing to the full length of the arm), "a yard." This was at a school at Antwerp.—J. P. BARRETT.

We clip from the *Annals* the following paragraph. We knew Superintendent Hammond when he was a teacher at Jacksonville, and have visited his institution at Council Bluffs, and it would be difficult to make us believe that he could be guilty of any intentional wrong. "A committee was appointed by the last legislature to investigate certain charges of cruelty, neglect, and extravagance that had been brought against the superintendent and matron. We are informed that the investigation was conducted in such a way as to make it difficult for the accused to defend themselves; that they were not allowed counsel, nor to cross-examine the witnesses, nor even to be present while most of the testimony was given; and that they were not granted a copy of the evidence, at its close, from which to make up their reply. The committee reported that the charge of cruelty was not sustained, but that the other charges of 'failure to care for the sick,' 'neglect to procure proper and sufficient food, both as to quantity and quality,' and—rather inconsistently with the last specification, it would seem—'failure to economize in the management of the institution,' were sustained. The committee recommended the discharge of the superintendent and matron at the close of the present school year, and the board of trustees, which was in harmony with the superintendent, was changed by the appointment of new members. Whether the new board will think the interests of the institution require them to comply with this recommendation we do not know; but, whatever the result, we are sure Mr. Hammond's friends in the profession will feel, with us, that the report of the committee weighs but lightly against the character he has built up during his eighteen years' work as a teacher and superintendent in schools for the deaf—the character of a kind-hearted, upright, faithful, and honorable man."

Of the numerous organizations in the country designed to provide literary, social, and religious advantages for the adult deaf, none are conducted more successfully than that of Salem, Massachusetts. It dates from September 29, 1875. It has a president, secretary, and executive committee. Its funds, permanent and current, are in trust of three prominent hearing citizens. A head-quarters, reasonably central, is rented, and thoroughly, elegantly fitted up for the uses of the society. It is an isolated building of two stories. An audience-room and pastor's study are on the first floor, and a reading-room and kitchen upon the second. The entire house is heated, and a janitor is at all times upon the premises, to take care of the property and to wait upon members and guests. The rooms are open every day of the week. In the details of library, newspapers, cooking utensils, crockery, carpets, curtains, appropriate furniture of every kind, full provision has been made. The citizens of Salem have recently borne the expense of an entire refitting. Religious services are sustained upon the Sabbath, and frequent meetings, religious, literary, and otherwise, upon week-days. The moving spirit in the whole enterprise has been and is the Rev. Philo W. Packard, a graduate of the American Asylum and a licensed minister. He has been employed as pastor of the society since 1880. The citizens of Salem thoroughly believe in the enterprise, and readily contribute whatever is necessary for the support of a pastor and other incidental expenses. On the 29th of March last, a convocation in its interest was held in the chapel of the Tabernacle Church. In addition to the usual Salem audience, there were in attendance a number of prominent deaf-mutes and their friends from other parts of New England. Several communications were read, notably one from Mr. W. M. Chamberlain, of Rome, New York. Brief addresses were made by the Rev. Samuel Rowe, of Maine; Mr. Thomas L. Brown, of Flint, Michigan; and Mr. John T. Tillinghast, of New Bedford, Massachusetts. The Rev. DeWitt S. Clark, of the Tabernacle Church, and the Rev. Fielder Israel, of the First Unitarian Church, gave voice to the interest of all Salem people in the society, and assurance of the fellowship and financial endorsement of their own and the other neighboring churches. One exercise of the occasion was a written essay or brief address, by Dr. G. O. Fay, of the American Asylum, on the importance of special religious services for deaf-mutes.—*Annals.*

Hospitals and the Sick.

The Manchester Hospital Sunday and Saturday Fund, has distributed £7,000 *pro rata*, among the medical charities of Manchester and Salford, (England).

The Sisters of St. Francis, in St. Louis, are putting up a four-story building, for hospital purposes, on O'Fallon St., between 13th and 14th, to cost $15,000.

The Common Council of Boston, Massachusetts, has passed an order appropriating $20,000 for the completion of wards for contagious diseases, and $9,000 for a building for out-patients at the City Hospital.

The Methodist churches of Brooklyn, N. Y., have subscribed $60,000 to complete the Seney Hospital, and the managers of the institution have perfected plans for raising an additional $140,000, making $200,000 in all.

The London Hospital is the only one in London which provides special accommodation for Jewish patients. The Metropolitan Free Hospital is about to follow suit. In their new building one fourth of the total number of beds will be set apart for Jewish patients.

St. Andrew's Convalescent Hospital has recently been opened for the care of female convalescents from other hospitals, and for working-women who need a short period of rest and medical treatment. It is located in East Sixteenth Street, near Stuyvesant Square, and is intended for patients of all denominations. It is under the care of the Sisters of St. John Baptist.—*Med. Jour.*

Dr. W. R. Meany writes to the *Medical Herald*, Louisville, Kentucky, that the expenditures of the Eastern Hospital in London for 1884 were $299,700. During the last three months of the year, with a daily average of 239 patients, there were consumed 1,455 bottles of champagne, costing $1,030; 970 bottles of beaune (claret), costing $860; 2,571 bottles of port wine, costing $960; and the bill for sherry, brandy, whiskey, gin, and hock amounted to $105; making the total bill for wine and spirits for the patients $2,955. The beer for patients in addition was $425; mineral waters $580. There was an additional bill for wine and beer for the use of medical officers, matron, and steward, during the same three months, of $3,750. At this rate the total expenditure for beer, wines, and spirits, during the entire year, would have been $26,280. Each patient may be assumed to use about $50 worth annually; and the consumption by the officers averages over $40 a day.

From the report for 1885, recently issued by the committee of The Nightingale Fund, it appears that the number of probation nurses admitted during the year was 45, and the number of those remaining from the preceding year was 32, making a total of 77 who received instruction. Of these, 19 resigned or were discharged, 27 completed their year's training, and 13 lady probationers and 18 nurse probationers remained in the school, December 31st. The annual gratuity of £2 allowed by the regulations, for the term of three years, to the certified nurses who have completed a year's service satisfactorily in some approved hospital or other institution for the benefit of the sick poor, was rewarded to 71 nurses, namely: 21 for their third year, 20 for their second year, and 30 for their first year. From the opening of the school in June, 1860, to the end of 1885, a total of 833 candidates have been admitted, and 494 have left the school after completing a year's training as certified nurses. The receipts amounted to £3,942, and a balance of £1,829 remains in the hands of the treasurer.—*Lancet.*

Prisons and Prisoners.

A new jail is to be built at Tallulah, La., by the Pauly Building Co. of St. Louis.

Capital punishment has not been inflicted upon any convict in Belgium since 1864; in Italy since 1876; and in Prussia there was not a single execution from 1870 to 1880. The number of executions in France, in 1884, was only seven.

In a convict prison at Tuantab, Egypt, containing 1,100 inmates, 200 prisoners died within six weeks from an obscure epidemic. Dr. Green, principal medical officer of the Sanitary Department, demanded an inquiry into the management of the prisons, and a commission, consisting of a colonel and three army surgeons, was appointed to make the investigation requested.

A little more than two years ago, Dr. Bertillon, Director of the Statistical Department of the Prefecture of Police, in Paris, introduced a system of anthropometry for the purpose of identifying criminals and others, when arrested. This system has been attended with the best results, for it was not always easy to identify criminals by simple photographs. Since the adoption of anthropometry, many old offenders have been recognized and dealt with according to their offences.

The following is a strange story: The boys of the penitentiary colony of Aniane, in France, are organized into a military company. Toward the close of March last they were making their usual Sunday promenade, with muskets on their shoulders and the band playing a march, accompanied by the superintendent and other officers. Just as they arrived at St.-William-of-the-Desert, the place to which they were going, the bugle sounded, the column broke ranks, and before the officers knew what was meant, thirty-seven of them threw down their arms and made their escape to the hills. Some of them had taken the precaution to wear their working blouses under their uniforms; some of them had provided themselves with knives taken from their workshops. Five were immediately recaptured. Four more were taken within an hour. The news spread at once throughout the neighboring villages. A standing reward of three dollars is offered for the arrest of each escaped inmate of the reformatory, and the gendarmerie of Aniane was soon in the saddle, in hot pursuit. The citizens armed themselves with guns and joined in what was a regular man-hunt, or boy-hunt, rather. All of the fugitives were recovered, but not until two of them had been killed and a third wounded.

Charity Organization.

The Charity Organization Society of Chicago has established a Provident Coal Club, for the purpose of enabling the worthy poor to save their money in summer and purchase their winter's coal at the lowest wholesale prices. The membership fee is ten cents, and thirty payments complete the subscription, which buys one ton of bituminous coal. No subscription is received for more than five tons, which is purchased from regular dealers. Subscribers for more than one ton can have a single ton delivered as soon as their payments amount to three dollars. They get the benefit of any rise in price, and the Society guarantees them full weights.

The following are the Rules for Friendly Visitors of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities: "Do not announce yourself to those whom you visit as a visitor of any society, but as a friend or neighbor, who has heard of their troubles, and is anxious to help them by finding work for them, etc. Always approach a family, in every call, and especially in your first visit, with delicacy, tact, respect, and sympathy. If your suspicions are aroused, do not show it. Do not use your position for any purpose of proselytism. If pecuniary aid be required, visitors may, if necessary, help to secure it and advise as to its use; but they will not give it themselves, except in those very rare cases of accident or starvation, which override all rules. Visit each case in your care at least once in each month; often weekly visits are necessary; but do not visit on regular days. Report regularly to your district conference in person or in writing; but if the meeting be public, beware how you mention names."

Over-sensitiveness is selfishness: self is so near the surface, that it is easily hurt.

Manly men do not wish that they were women, and womanly women do not wish themselves men.

Miscellaneous.

A State Charities Aid Association has been organized in New Jersey.

The Five Points House of Industry, New York, is putting up a new infirmary, to cost $14,000.

The Jewish Home, New Orleans, is about to erect a building on St. Charles avenue, near Peters, to cost $70,800.

The Milwaukee county board (Wisconsin) has decided to erect an inebriate asylum with a capacity of 100 beds.

An undenominational church is about to be erected in connection with the Hampton (Va.) Institute, of brick and terra-cotta, in the Romanesque style of architecture. It will cost $70,000.

Mrs. Matilda B. Carse, who is president of the Chicago Women's Temperance Union, has had the offer from a wealthy citizen of ground on which to erect an industrial home for fallen women.

Two hundred boys from Dr. Barnardo's Institution were to leave England for Canada, on the 15th of June, under the personal care of Mr. A. B. Owen, of Peterborough, Ontario, and two experienced assistants.

The wife of Senator Leland Stanford, of California, has bought, for a quarter of million of dollars, her father's homestead at Albany, N. Y., and will maintain it as a day nursery for the children of working-women.

A distinguished English traveller, who, on his return from an extended tour, was asked what was the most characteristic feature of American life, promptly replied: "The wineless dinner-table."—FRANCES E. WILLARD.

The French Society for the Prevention of the Abuse of Tobacco, offers a prize of 1000 francs for the best series of essays on the effects of tobacco on the health of men of letters and its influence on the future of French literature.

A recent examination of the employees of certain French railroads for color-blindness, made in compliance with the instructions of the Minister of Public Works, resulted in the detection of only two persons who were totally color-blind among 21,173. Three could not distinguish red, 6 green; 18 showed a confusion in distinguishing between green and red; 15 a like confusion betwen blue and gray; and 52 had a feeble sense of colors in general. These results showed that the danger arising from color-blindness, on the French railroads, at least, is almost *nil.*—*Science.*

At the meeting of the American Laryngological Association, in Philadelphia, Dr. Thomas R. French, of Brooklyn, read a paper on the laryngeal image, as seen in photographs taken during the production of tones in the singing voice. Different individuals evidently use different mechanisms in the production of different tones. The general result of his investigations seemed to indicate that, in the production of low notes, the vocal cords are separated to a greater extent posteriorly than anteriorly. In the production of the middle tones the vocal cords are parallel; and in the production of high notes the opening is widest in front. The paper was illustrated by numerous photographs thrown upon a screen.

The House of the Angel Guardian, in Boston, under the management of the Brothers of Charity, is maintained chiefly by the Society of the Angel Guardian. Enrolment in the society confers the following spiritual advantages: "A daily mass for all members; a weekly mass for collectors and life members; a weekly mass in aid of the prayers of the society for special favors; two hundred masses annually for deceased members; a special mass of requiem for each member at death; over 26,000 masses offered during the year by the confraternity for the relief of holy souls; a plenary indulgence on the day of enrolment and at the hour of death; a plenary indulgence twice each year; a plenary indulgence to collectors on the 8th of December of each year; an indulgence of 300 days as often as members recite certain prayers; an indulgence of forty days once a day to members reciting the prayers on membership cards; an indulgence of 100 days, once a day, to all who recite said prayers and perform some good work for orphans or the poor; together with the graces obtained by 73,000 chaplets, or beads, and by as many other prayers, annually said by the community and the boys for all benefactors."

BE NOBLE.

"For this true nobleness I seek in vain,
In woman and in man I find it not;
I almost weary of my earthly lot,
My life-springs are dried up with burning pain."
Thou find'st it not? I pray thee look again,
Look *inward* through the depths of thine own soul.
How is it with thee? Art thou sound and whole?
Doth narrow search show thee no earthly stain?
BE NOBLE! and the nobleness that lies
In other men, sleeping, but never dead,
Will rise in majesty to meet thine own;
Then wilt thou see it gleam in many eyes,
Then will pure light around thy path be shed,
And thou wilt nevermore be sad and lone.

—JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL.